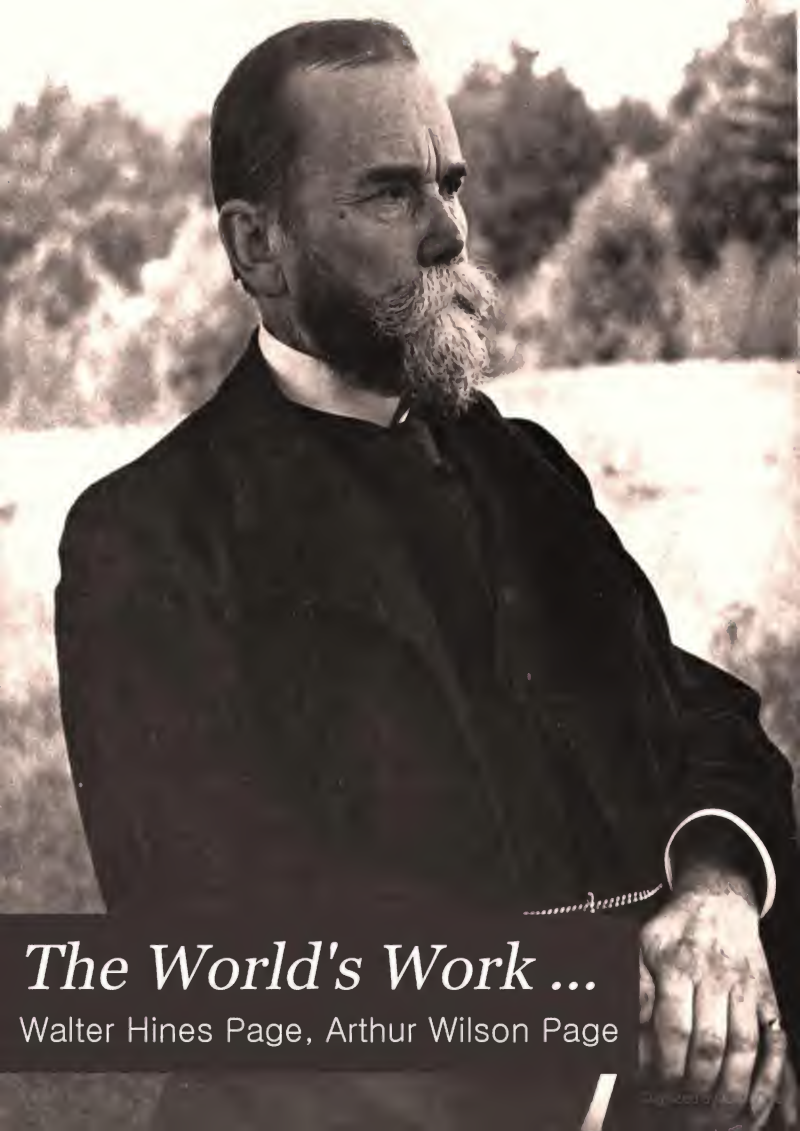
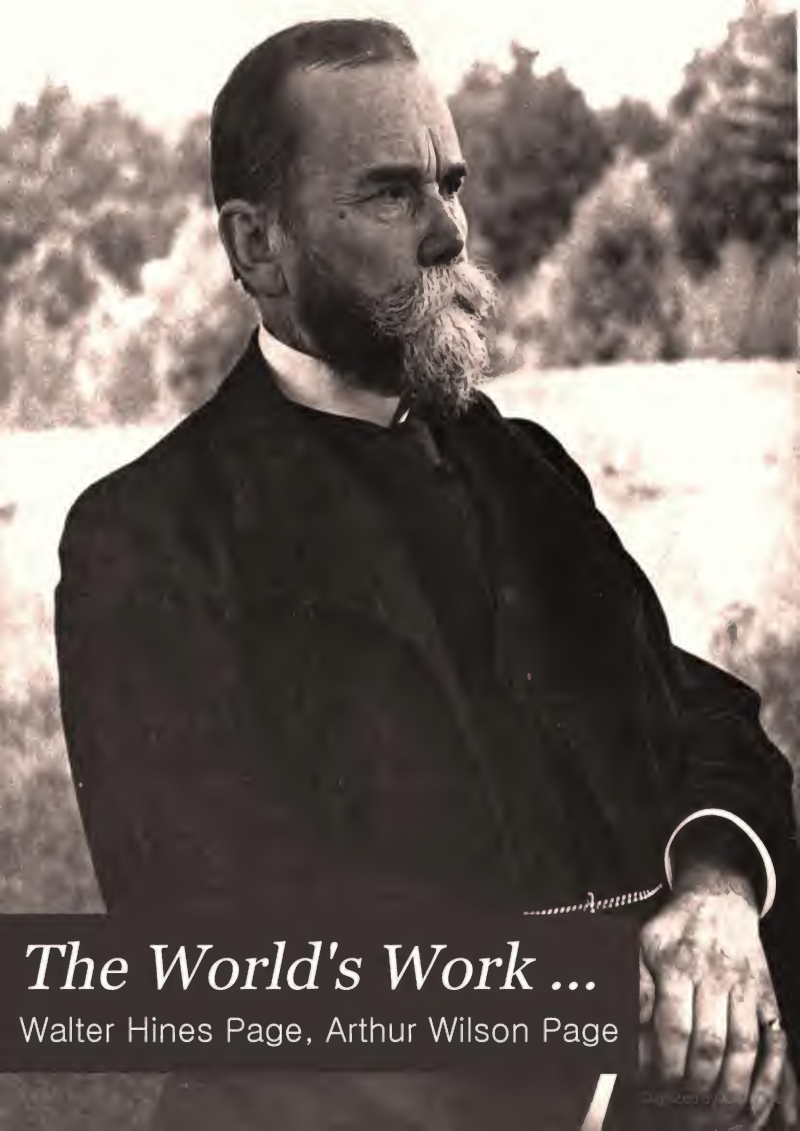


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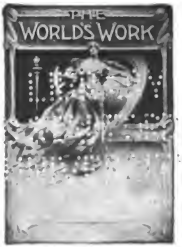
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VOLUME I

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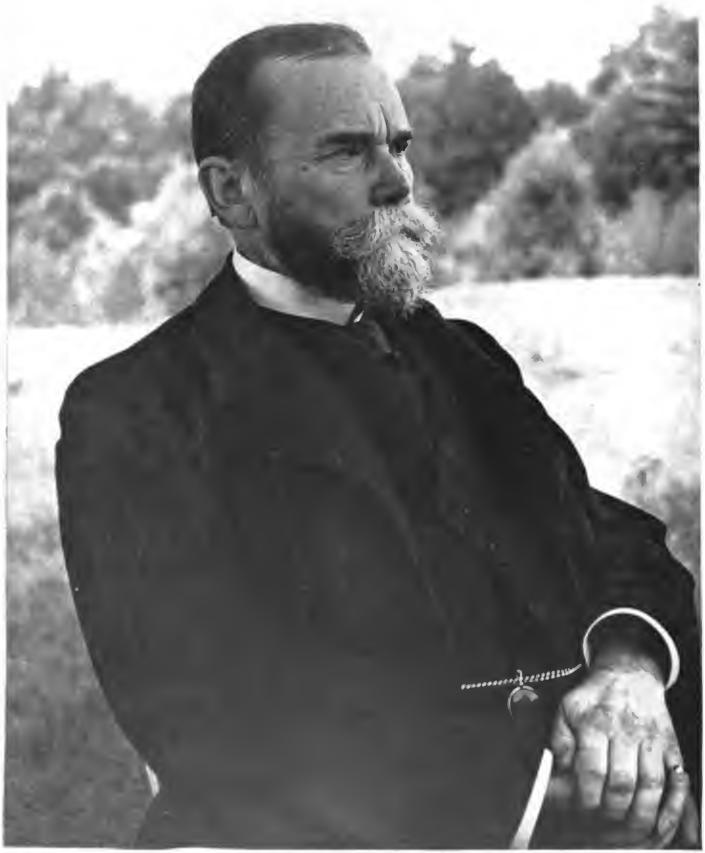
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JOHN HAY

SOLDIER, JOURNALIST, SECRETARY TO LINCOLN AND HIS BIOGRAPHER, A MAN OF LETTERS AND A MAN OF ACTION; TRAVELLER, DIPLOMATIST, MINISTER TO THE COURT OF ST. JAMES, A CITIZEN OF THE WORLD AND A PATRIOTIC AMERICAN; SECRETARY OF STATE, AND PEACEFUL LEADER OF THE NATIONS WHO WOULD PRESERVE THE OLDEST EMPIRE.

(*See "Our Place among the Nations," page 47.*)

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THE WORLD'S WORK

VOLUME I NOVEMBER 1900 NUMBER 1

The March of Events

THE concrete results of American character and enterprise during the uninterrupted period since the civil war now appear in such variety and volume as to indicate the rich meaning of life under democratic conditions; for they denote a shifting of the working centre of the world.

The United States is become the richest of all countries. We sell fuel as well as food to Europe, and the rapid increase of our manufactures for export was never matched. We have developed the skilled workman whose earnings are larger and whose product is cheaper than any of his competitor's, because he is a better master of himself and of the machinery that he uses. Our commercial supremacy is inevitable, and European governments are already our debtors for cash as well as for manhood suffrage.

We have constructed industrial and commercial machinery, too, of a scope and of a precision of action that were hitherto unknown. All wise plans for the future must rest on the changes wrought by modern machinery, the organization of industry, and the freedom of the individual; for the perfection of method and of mechanism has done more than to spread well-being among the masses and to enrich and dignify labor: it has changed social ideals and intellectual points of view. It is, in fact, changing the character of men. As soon as material prosperity is won they care less for it; what they enjoy is the work of winning it. The higher organization of industry has for half a century engaged the kind of minds that once founded colonies, built cathedrals, led armies, and practised statecraft; and, to an increasing number, work has become less and less a means of bread-winning and more and more a form of noble exercise. The artist always took joy in his work: it is the glory of our time that the man of affairs can find a similar pleasure in his achievements.

It is with the activities of the newly organized world, its problems and even its romance, that this magazine will earnestly concern itself, trying to convey the cheerful spirit of men who do things.

AT THE CENTURY'S END

AND "THE WORLD'S WORK" begins its career at a fortunate time; for whatever may be thought of the nineteenth century when it can be seen in the perspective of universal history, to men who have caught the spirit of its closing years, it seems the best time to live that has so far come. It is unlike all former periods in this, that it has seen the simultaneous extension of democracy and the rise of science. These have put life on a new plane, and made a new adjustment of man to man and of man to the universe.

An incalculable advantage that we have over men of any other century is the widening of individual opportunity. It has been the century of the abolition of slavery throughout

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the English-speaking world, and of serfdom in Russia. It has been the century of the spread of well-being among the masses; for there are in the United States perhaps fifty millions of persons better fed, better clad, freer from care, and more cheerful masters of gainful crafts than ever before lived contiguously. It is the century of machinery, of swift travel, and of instant communication; and these have brought greater social betterment than had before come within the historic period.

It has been the century of the expansion of the republic, and of the earth-girdling spread of the British Empire,—the widest domination that has been won by men of the same stock. They are men, too, of one speech, of one literature, and that the greatest; and wherever they have gone they have carried their love of order and of fair play, their habit of truth-telling, their out-door sports, and their genius for action.

Although it has been the century of the widest conquest, it has been the century also of the greatest toleration, of the keenest human sympathy, the most active helpfulness. In an era of action and of freedom, man has become a brother to man as he never became in any era of doctrine and authority.

It has been the century of patient fact-finding, the century of the emancipation of thought from mystery and dogma, and of the yielding of theory to experience. We are more nearly the masters of nature and are more at home in the universe than any of our predecessors,—a universe that is better known to us, and for that reason the more wonderful and the more homelike.

Of American life, as the century ends, the keynote is the note of joyful achievement; and its faith is an evangelical faith in a democracy that broadens as fast as social growth invites. The republic has been extended, held together, again extended, and it is still the harbor of refuge and the beacon of civilization. Its influence has broadened the thought of the Old World, and is now felt in the Oldest World. It is liberalizing kings toward their uncrowning, and softening class distinctions, and it is making all artificial authority obsolete. Its century of action and of social experiment has turned all formal philosophies into curiosities of literature. It has now yielded material for a new period of constructive thought.

THE AFTER-GLOW OF THE BOER WAR

LORD ROBERTS'S predetermined elevation to the post of commander-in-chief of the British army was gracefully made on his birthday, and shrewdly made just before the parliamentary elections were held. It emphasized the military success—long drawn out and unexpectedly costly in men and money—of the Salisbury government. It would be hard to find many instances in history of the defeat of a ministry or of an administration just after a successful war, however many mistakes it may have made.

The continuance of the Conservatives in power is essentially a war victory. The formal ending of organized hostility in South Africa, the annexation, as colonies, of the Boer states, the flight of President Kruger, the addition to the British debt of $500,000,000, the return of the largest army that Great Britain ever had in the field (many an officer and man missing),—these events leave a substantial addition of territory to the Empire, and bring to a head the long-standing demand for reform in the army, and an occasion for a still greater increase in the navy.

Out of a wide division of opinion throughout the civilized world, the general judgment emerges that British rule will greatly advance civilization in South Africa over the standard that could ever have been reached by the Boers. They stood in the way of the better organization of world politics.

But the especial lesson that Great Britain has learned is the need of radical reform in her army. The posts of honor and responsibility must be open to merit only, not longer to mere birth or wealth. It would be easier to bring about under a Liberal than under a Conservative ministry; but it cannot now be longer delayed. Lord Roberts's next duty, after he has been received as a hero, will be to make the army democratic.

One effect that the close of the war will be likely to have will be to quicken Great Britain's action, and to increase her influence, in the settlement of the Chinese trouble. Of all the great Powers she has been so far almost the most laggard and uninfluential in the concert of nations—at a time, too, when her strong hand has been needed to make sure of the safety, for the future of the "open door."

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THE COAL STRIKE AND THE PUBLIC

ONE of the principal causes of the strike of the coal miners in September throughout the anthracite region was an old complaint about the price of powder. More than twenty years ago the mine owners established the custom of themselves providing the miners with powder, at the price then of $2.75 a keg. It has steadily become cheaper, and is now $1.10 to $1.25 a keg. But the old custom whereby the operators supply powder to the miners is yet kept up. Some charge no profit, others a slight profit, others a large profit. It is this profit that the miner objects to; for he is not permitted to buy in the open market.



A TYPICAL SCRANTON COAL-MINER.

There were, of course, other reasons for the strike. The miners' wages have during the last few years shared the general advance, but higher wages were asked and were, later, granted; and other concessions were made.

But in a strike of this magnitude, whereby the whole public might seriously suffer a lessened supply of a necessity and an increased cost, what redress has the public? In comparison with the possible suffering of the people, the grievances of the miners or of the operators become insignificant.

The services of the Catholic clergy as mediators and arbitrators become more and more common in these troubles. But in this strike there was another influence at work. The country owes its gratitude to the managers of the Republican campaign committee for causing an end to be put to it. But the country would, in spite of its gratitude, hardly agree that such work is a natural function of a campaign committee. Neither to provoke strikes nor to stop them falls clearly within the proper range of political committee duties. The incident is too suggestive of the irresponsible power of these committees for possible evil, too suggestive, too, of "syndicated" political influences.

They do these things differently in New Zealand, where, Mr. Henry D. Lloyd will tell you in his little book, "A Country without Strikes," a compulsory arbitration court exists, and warring employers and employees are not permitted to do public hurt. What-



MINERS COMING UP FOR THE LAST TIME BEFORE GOING ON STRIKE.

ever the clergy on occasion may do out of sheer benevolence, and whatever a political committee may do — for benevolence or other reasons — the public ought to have some means of doing for its own protection.

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THE REBUILDING OF GALVESTON

THE efficiency and swiftness of modern organization were never more happily demonstrated than by the almost instant relief of the suffering at Galveston; nor was the indomitable American spirit ever better



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WRECKS ON THE SHORE AT GALVESTON.

shown than by the determination with which the survivors of the awful catastrophe have set about rebuilding the city.

No such loss of life by the elements ever before happened in our country. At least eight thousand persons perished and 10,000 were made homeless. The damage to property is estimated at $30,000,000. But substantial relief went quickly from every part of the country and from several foreign countries — to the value of much more than $1,000,000; and it has been most admirably managed by the mayor and the governor.

The wisdom of rebuilding on the same site is one thing; but, before any body of engineers could have reached a professional conclusion, the work of rebuilding has begun. The fact that the old city was there, that a

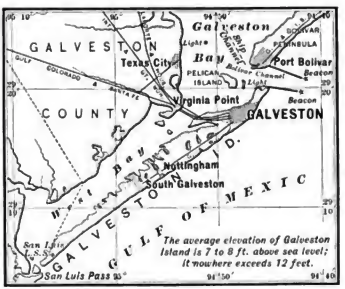


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IN THE HEART OF GALVESTON AFTER THE STORM.

portion of it of course stands and is habitable, and especially the fact that railroad communication was restored almost at once, settled the question. Sea-walls may keep another wind and tide from doing destruction for many years. But whatever the danger of a repetition of the disaster,— which is a danger that cannot be calculated,— the growth of the city to the first cotton port in the country, and to one of our first half-dozen export cities, implies commercial forces too strong to be discouraged.

Rapid as has been the growth of the city, it had by no means reached its development. The single fact that it has the best harbor on the Gulf, which had been improved at great cost to the government, will ensure its con-

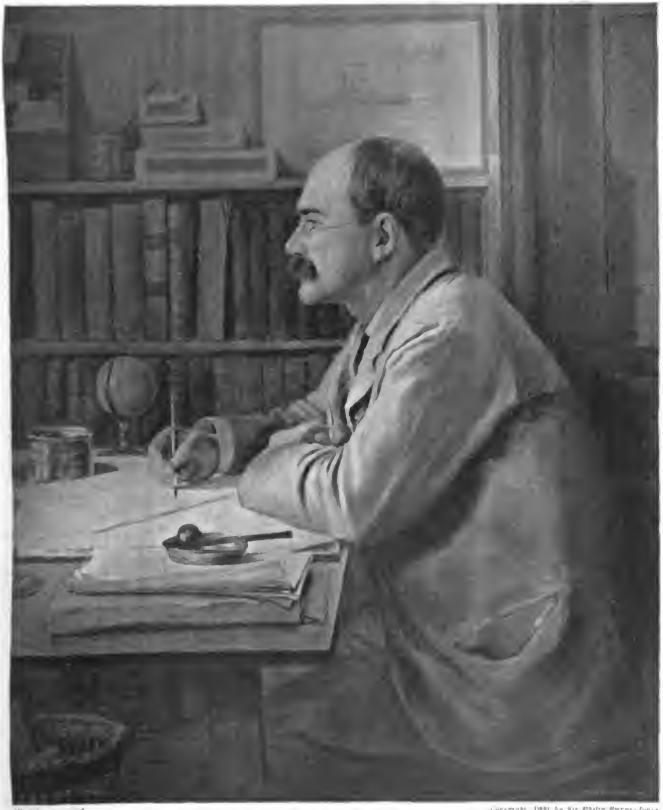


tinued growth for many years. The great empire of Texas, to say nothing of the other territory of which Galveston is the natural outlet, is only fairly beginning its output of cotton and other crops. Nothing but the elements can prevent its ultimate growth into one of the greatest and richest of American seaports. The railroads and the harbor are stronger than fear for the future.

A NEW KIPLING PORTRAIT

SIR Philip Burne-Jones recently painted what is likely to remain for a long time the most intimate and characteristic portrait of Mr. Rudyard Kipling, a print from which appears on the opposite page. It will be published, forthwith, separately, in a larger print — almost as large as the original painting — by Messrs. Doubleday, Page & Co. The original, by the way, was shown at the Royal Academy last summer in a position of special honor.

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Copyright, 1890, by Sir Philip Burne-Jones

RUDYARD KIPLING.

From the portrait by Sir Philip Burne-Jones.

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THE ELECTION MAP OF 1896

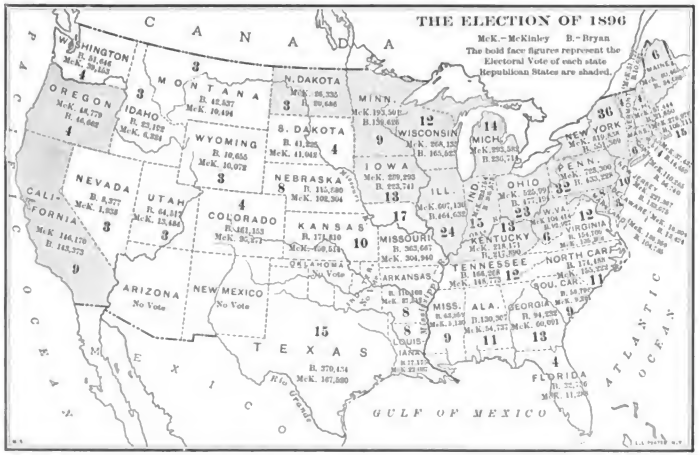
THE accompanying map of the States that voted for McKinley and the States that voted for Bryan in 1896 shows that there is not a large city in any Bryan State except Missouri and Louisiana. In other words, when the question of maintaining the gold standard was the decisive question almost every community that has a highly organized and responsible commercial life voted for it. The Bryan States were the States wherein the old-fashioned rural commercial methods are yet more or less in practice. True, the South would have voted for Bryan for other reasons, just as Maine, New Hampshire, and Vermont for other reasons would have voted for McKinley; but a proposition to tinker the standard of value will at any time group the great manufacturing and commercial communities together; for world-wide economic forces are stronger even than political partisanship. The Bryan territory on this map is much larger than the McKinley territory. But every State in it is comparatively sparsely populated; and the population of the McKinley States is, as a rule, growing faster than that of the Bryan States.

THE OUTLOOK FOR YOUNG MEN

"THE hope of former days has departed from the young men of the land" — so the Democratic platform of New York declares. And it goes wailing on:

"The outlook promises only that what they are today that they shall remain to the end of their lives. . . . Turn where they may to improve their condition, they encounter the crushing rivalry of aggregated millions, and the inequality of the contest for improved conditions for the individual renders the contest hopeless."

This in the face of two facts which every man of affairs knows. The first fact is that there is not in the United States a successful manufacturing or commercial concern, whether a corporation, a partnership, or an individual, that is not definitely looking for young men of capacity. There is not a successful man, engaged in any active pursuit, that will read this paragraph who does not need a young man, or a dozen young men, of the right mettle and training, for some duty or duties that are now not done at all or are ill done — duties that in most cases will compel promotion if done well enough. There are, moreover, more brilliant chances in the



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professions for the best-trained men than our society ever before offered. For the first time, too, even the ancient art of agriculture is reduced to a scientific basis. A trained man can find a competence, a trained and able man a fortune, in acres that under the old system were neglected.

The second fact that every man of affairs knows is that there is no power in combination nor in capital that equals the force of a strong personality. In fact, every successful industrial or financial combination is built on a strong personality. Lacking strong personalities, combinations fall apart. Everywhere activities are grouping themselves about strong men, not about money; for money follows strong men as naturally as weak men follow money. The primary power is the man; never, in our life, the money. For incompetent, unskilled, untrained men, all times have been hard times; but for strong men and trained men the present phase of our industrial development offers opportunities such as no preceding generation had. For instance, the late President of the Bell Telephone Company became president not because of his holdings in the company, but only because of his efficiency in managing it. At his death, it was reported that he owned only fifteen shares of the company's stock.



PROFESSOR MARK H. LIDDELL

The lost soul that wrote this plank in a political platform mistook the time he lives in and the audience that he addressed.

A NEW CULTURE FOR NEW CONDITIONS

MR. MARK H. LIDDELL, who contributes to this magazine a far-reaching statement of the need of new matter and a new method of culture for the changed conditions of our life and thought, has, as far as one man can do such a task, put his conclusions to the test of experience. In the University of Texas, where he held the headship of the Department of English, he woke such enthusiasm in his pupils that his teaching made a new era in their intellectual life.

Mr. Liddell has given up teaching for several years to carry out a well-matured plan to prepare a new critical and well-furnished edition of Shakspere, the first volume of which (Macbeth) will soon be ready. He is an American scholar, who studied under the greatest master of his time in Germany and lived long in Oxford, England, where he was the special pupil and friend of Professor Napier, and the friend likewise of all the English scholars at that ancient seat of learning. He is one of the editors of the new Globe Chaucer, and of a forthcoming edition, for school use, of a part of the Canterbury Tales, and a frequent contributor to the critical journals of the United States, England, and Germany. Mr. Liddell is equipped with the best technical scholarship and an uncommonly wide reading besides. His new Shakspere is expected to show not only ripe learning and to reflect great credit on American scholarship, but — what is even more valuable — it is expected to help toward the constructive culture that he pleads for in his essay. In this essay the method and the matter of sound learning for present conditions are put in right coordination with the rest of modern life, for its balance and its enrichment.

The organized method of intellectual training is the last and most reluctant force in modern life to yield completely to democratic influences. It is at last yielding and must yield; but there can never be a truly democratic culture that does not rest on our own language, literature, and history.

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THE best augury of success in solving the new and difficult problems of bringing the old Spanish Islands up to the plane of prosperous communities and at last to self-government, is the character of the men that the President has put in authority. Governor Wood, of Cuba, Governor Allen, of Porto Rico, and General MacArthur and Judge Taft and his associate commissioners in the Philippines, are all as good appointments as any government ever made or could make.

The Administration has made mistakes and has suffered misfortunes in its conduct of these new duties; but the general plan of government laid down in each of these dependencies means that we regard the people not as subjects, but as wards. We hold these islands in trust for civilization; and the men that we have sent to administer affairs during the period of tuition give evidence of our earnestness.

The following explanation of what we have done in each of the islands is based on observations recently made on the spot in Cuba and Porto Rico and on information received direct from the Philippines.

WHAT THE CUBANS WANT

DURING the first year of occupancy our military government devoted itself chiefly to three great objects,—the sanitary reformation of the cities, the establishment of a school system, and the regeneration of the courts. In all these directions remarkable progress has been made.

Under Spanish rule, Cuba was literally the pest-house of the world, sending yellow fever, smallpox, and other infectious diseases broadcast among the nations. Within a single year, General Ludlow in Havana and General Wood in Santiago performed the miracle of almost entirely stamping out these diseases. When General Wood stood before President Eliot to receive the honorary degree of LL.D. that Harvard bestowed upon him, the President called him the "cleanser of Cuba," and the title belongs with equal desert to General Ludlow, for what one did for Santiago the other did approximately for Havana; and their combined service was a contribution to the health of the world that has not been surpassed in our time. More than $3,000,000 were spent in sanitation, and the cities of Cuba to-day, instead of being the most pestilential in the world, are advancing toward equal rank with the most healthful.

EDUCATIONAL REFORM

Scarcely less notable achievements have been made in regard to education. When Spanish rule ended there was no school system worthy of the name, and only four thousand out of two hundred thousand children were at school. Within six months Mr. Alexis E. Frye, an enthusiastic and devoted educator from New England, appointed by General Brooke, constructed a comprehensive school system, had one hundred and fifty thousand pupils in attendance, had an army of native teachers enthusiastically at work, had laid the foundation for the establishment of normal schools, and had given assurance that within a few years Cuba would have a public school system of the American type, in every part of the island.

Reformation of the courts, which under Spanish rule were indescribably corrupt, has been a slower and more difficult task, but is making progress. Many have been remodelled, all corruption in them is pursued and rigorously punished when proved, and they are gaining steadily in the respect of the people.

A vast sum of money has been spent in charitable work.

In the direction of self-government, the municipalities elect their own mayors and councils, and an election was held in September at which delegates were chosen to a convention that is to assemble in November to draft a constitution for the island. This instrument, when formulated, is to be submitted to the Congress of the United States for approval, as is necessary, since under the treaty of Paris, the American Government is pledged to give security to life and property and must be the judge as to whether a scheme of fundamental law seems a sufficient guaranty of stability and order.

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JOEL CHANDLER HARRIS.

JOURNALIST (NOW RETIRED), HUMORIST, PHILOSOPHER, A PAINTER IN THE NATURAL WORLD AND NEAR NEIGHBOR TO THE FAIRY ENTITIES OF MYTH. MINERVY ANN, AND MR. BILLY SANCHO PANTHER, ESQ., HAVE HAD TO CLEAR A TITLE TO IMMORTALITY AS ANY OTHER [illegible]

The military establishment in the island has been reduced from 43,000 to less than 6000 men.

Cuban opinion concerning the future government of the island is divided into three groups.

PARTY DIVISIONS IN CUBA

There is a small class, whose associations are chiefly foreign, that believe the Cubans incapable of self-government. They fear lest independence would be followed by social disorder and the financial irregularities which have been the misfortune of some of the existing Latin-American republics. Many foreigners who have invested their capital on the island share this feeling. They are uncompromising annexationists, because they believe that the future depends on firm restraint.

The second class is uncompromisingly opposed to any outside interference with the building up of the new republic. They are led by the men who were active in the revolution, some of whom have given their fortunes to the agitations of the past thirty years, men of ardent patriotism. They earnestly desire the good will of the Americans, and they are cooperating cordially in our administrative work. But they unhesitatingly proclaim their right to establish their own government, to misgovern themselves, indeed, so long as they respect the property rights and the amenities of international usage. These men wish the moral support of the United States as their strong neighbor and friend, but nothing more. They object most bitterly to the restrictions which the American government imposes on the organization of their constitutional convention, and they declare that we are in honor pledged to let them alone absolutely, and that it is a mere contradiction to talk now of letting them alone conditionally.

A third large class believe that the most serious problems before the Cubans are economic and international rather than political and domestic. They believe the Cubans are quite capable of self-government, but that the future depends directly upon the free entry for her products into the American market. With Hawaii, Porto Rico, and the Philippines enjoying free entry, could Cuba pay duties and live under the competition? Cuba has produced more than 1,000,000 tons of sugar in a single crop. This year the product did not reach 300,000 tons. Will capital go into Cuban cane-fields, they ask, when American tropical lands, equal in fertility, offer the advantage of $35 or $40 a ton in the free entry of the product? In short, these men believe that Cuba, independent, cannot pay American duties and live. They prefer independence, but they regard it as impossible without support in American and economic legislation. While some seem to hesitate, waiting to see what the United States may offer in a spirit of friendly encouragement, the greater number advocate immediate annexation. The strongest pressure will be made in the future by commercial interests, both in Cuba and in the United States; and this influence will grow.



GENERAL LEONARD WOOD AND HIS SON.

THE CONDITION OF THE PORTO RICANS

THE territorial form of government established in Porto Rico last May is in several respects more liberal than was ever accorded to territories within our borders. The President appoints the six principal executive officers. These, with five other persons, also appointed by the President, constitute an Executive Council, at least five members of which shall be native inhabitants of Porto Rico. This Executive Council is the upper house of the local legislature. The lower house consists of thirty-five members chosen biennially by the qualified native voters. The Chief Justice and associate justices of the Supreme Court are appointed by the President and approved by the Senate, and the judges of the district

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courts are appointed by the governor with the approval of the Executive Council.

The revenue of the island is raised by a duty of fifteen per cent of the rates of the Dingley tariff upon all American goods going into Porto Rico, and upon all goods coming from Porto Rico into the United States. All duties collected both here and there are paid to the government of Porto Rico Congress transferred to Porto Rico all duties paid upon Porto Rican products between November 1, 1898, and June 30, 1900, aggregating $2,250,523. The American Government has expended, besides this sum, for relief, education, and road improvement in the island, more than $1,500,000. The present tariff law runs only till March 1, 1902, or to such earlier date as the legislature of Porto Rico may provide local revenues for the support of the government.



GOVERNOR-GENERAL ALLEN OF PORTO RICO

The first and present governor of the island, Charles H. Allen, was at the time of his appointment Assistant Secretary of the Navy, and as a man ranks with General Wood in Cuba and Judge Taft in the Philippines in personal character and exceptional fitness. The exports to the island from this country have more than doubled since his advent, and the imports from it also have nearly doubled.

The normal difficulties of the government of the island were immensely increased by the widespread devastation by hurricane last year. A people of no initiative, of slight resource, and of tropical indolence and consequent under-nourishment, have been slow to recover from the effects of the loss of property; and their ignorance, mercurial temperament, and rabid partisanship have interfered as seriously with political progress. One of the first and necessary steps of the new government was to stop the indiscriminate distribution of rations, which seemed to be contributing rather to the encouragement of dependency than to the relief of those who received them. The government still seeks out those in real distress, and provides employment on public works for such as have no means of livelihood. The military government ordered the remission of taxes where the tax-payers had suffered from the hurricane. The result was that nearly every tax-payer in some districts asked for a rebate of a part or all his taxes. The tariff, of which there seems to be very little complaint, brought relief; and the new treasurer, Dr. Hollander, who was sent as a special commissioner to report upon a revenue system, began with vigor to collect the internal revenues due and to equalize the assessments for future taxes.

SCHOOLS AND LOCAL POLITICS

There is not a building on the island erected expressly for public school purposes; but an appropriation was made by the military government of $20,000 to supplement private subscriptions of the same amount, for a normal school building, and the first petition laid before the Executive Council asked for an increased appropriation for it. A public high school is to be opened at once in San Juan, and preparations are being made for teaching a large number of children all over the island.

The Commission recently appointed to codify the laws is now at its labors. The first steps have been taken in legislation. The Executive Council has held its first sessions.

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It is unable until the assembling of the popular body, to be elected in November, to exercise any other functions than those implied in the partitioning of the island for election purposes and the granting of franchises; but it was in the place of its assembling, the old throne room, that the first divergence between our representatives and the islanders occurred. It ended in the theatrical withdrawal of the minority (the two Federals) from the Council.

The party lines are drawn on insular issues, though the platforms of the two prominent parties (the Federal and the Republican) seem to declare for the same principles. The parties are rather personal followings and seem to have as their chief aim, not the working out of a definite policy, but the control of the political offices. Neither party desires independence for the island. The general desire seems to be that the island shall be accorded the form of government which Hawaii has.

The military establishment in the island consists of only a guard—a mere handful of soldiers.



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JUDGE TAFT AND GENERAL WRIGHT, OF THE PHILIPPINE COMMISSION, AT MANILA

A better group of men it would be difficult to collect than those to whom the affairs of the island have been entrusted. They are many of them there at a personal sacrifice, and all are men of high character and great earnestness.

OUR PROGRESS IN THE PHILIPPINES

ON September 1 the civil government on the islands passed from the military governor to the Commission which was appointed by the President in March to establish a stable government as fast as conditions warranted. The real civil governor of the islands is, therefore, Judge William H. Taft, the head of the Commission. The other members are Dean C. Worcester, of Michigan, Luke I. Wright, of Tennessee, Henry C. Ide, of Vermont, and Bernard Moses, of California. The Commission exercises the entire legislative authority of the government. It has control of the revenue, the appropriations, and civil appointments. It was directed by the President to establish an educational system, an efficient civil service system, courts, municipal and departmental governments, and to appoint officers in all these departments. Only the military operations remain with the military governor.

The first duty of the Commission was to establish municipal governments in which the natives should manage their local affairs to the fullest extent practicable, subject to the least degree of supervision consistent with law and order. The President directed that all the guaranties of the Bill of Rights in regard to life, liberty, and property should be made the "inviolable rules" for every division and branch of the government. This, in fact, is one pledge of free government at last.

One of the first acts of the Commission was the establishment of a stringent civil-service law, giving preference to such Filipinos as showed qualifications equal to American applicants. Advancements are to be made from the lowest ranks by promotion to the heads of departments. Judge Taft was for many years the president of the civil-service-reform organization in Cincinnati and one of the reform's most earnest advocates in the whole country. The National Civil Service Reform Commission detailed a man to establish a bureau in the islands.

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The Commission has appropriated $1,000,000 for the construction of highways and bridges. The money was taken from the revenues of the islands and will be used as an object lesson to the Filipinos in honest expenditure. It will give work to many and be an education in the arts of modern construction and modern sanitation. Forty-five miles of railroad extension are also under way, giving further employment and opening a province rich in minerals and healthful in climate. This practical work itself gives hope of a new era.

The Commission is establishing schools with English teachers and high schools for teaching English to adults. The educational work is in the hands of Dr. W. F. Atkinson, of Springfield, Mass., who is Superintendent of Public Instruction in the islands. He is a well-trained and well-equipped man, and his willingness to accept the post was a striking instance of patriotic devotion to public duty, precisely similar to that given by Judge Taft when he resigned his position on the bench of the United States Circuit Court in obedience to the President's call to duty in the Philippines.



GENERAL MACARTHUR, IN MILITARY COMMAND IN THE PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.

The Commission made its first report by cable on August 31, and the most important news in it was that the activity of the insurgents, who are now chiefly bands of robbers, was kept alive by the hope that the presidential election would cause the withdrawal of American troops. "The mass of the people has aptitude for education, but is ignorant, superstitious, and credulous in a remarkable degree. Hostility against the Americans was originally aroused by absurd falsehoods of unscrupulous leaders." The Commission reports further that the economy and efficiency of the military government have created a surplus fund of $6,000,000 Mexican, which should be expended in much needed public works, notably improvement of Manila harbor. The report concludes with the statement that —

"The creation of a central government, like that of Porto Rico, under which substantially all rights described in the Bill of Rights in the Federal Constitution are to be secured to the people of the Philippines, will bring to them contentment, prosperity, education, and political enlightenment."

Since the Commission's report was made, the hostility of the insurgents has continued; and the total losses of American troops since our occupation of the islands by death in battle and by disease has been great. But the necessity of a large military force unfortunately continues.

The pivot of the whole controversy about our policy in the islands turns on the character of the people and their fitness for self government. The Commission gives its testimony, after as thorough an investigation as can be made, that there is no practical way to bring them to a life of order and industry except by the general policy that we are pursuing. There was never a time during the Spanish rule when there were not hostile tribes or bands; and peace with them was often a matter of purchase. The complete pacification of the islands — an achievement yet unaccomplished since the Spanish occupancy — will require time. The pity of it is that it may require a long time. But the building of roads and railroads and the establishment of schools are weapons that the Spaniards never used in their warfare against the insular ignorance and turbulence. The best weapon of all is — time.

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AS the campaign goes on toward the election, it becomes more clearly a repetition of the campaign of 1896. The presidential candidates are the same, and the main issue is the same. The Republicans have a more attractive vice-presidential candidate than the Democrats; they have a body of achievement to their credit; and the Democrats have again taken the part of critics of what has been done rather than of the shapers of a positive policy. For these reasons the Republicans, a month before the election, seem likely to win it.

But popular interest, especially in the Eastern and Southern States, has been slow to show itself, nor is it intense in the West. The nominating conventions carried out ready-made programmes, except in the nomination of candidates for Vice-President. They gave the parties no surprise and no new rallying cry; and the people have no great spontaneous interest in any one of the three chief subjects of discussion.



THE EMPEROR.
(From a cartoon by Bristol in *The Verdict* satirizing the Anti-Imperialist warnings.)

THE OLD SILVER ISSUE AGAIN

THE question of free silver coinage at 16 to 1 was settled four years ago — at least, so men hoped and thought; and we should have heard nothing more of it if the Democratic candidate had been any other man than Mr. Bryan. It was with reluctance and fear that it was put forward in the Democratic platform made by Mr. Bryan's own convention. In fact, it was not put prominently forward, for the emphasis was laid on imperialism.

But the renomination of Mr. Bryan thrust the old silver controversy into the foremost place. Do what they may, the Democratic leaders cannot escape it. The friends of the gold standard have been obliged to accept the challenge, and to fight the same battle over again. The rank and file of the Republican party of course accepts the challenge. Did they not win four years ago against the same purpose, led by the same man? And there are more independent gold-standard men who will vote for Mr. McKinley this year than there were four years ago. This year there is no separate gold Democratic party; and General Palmer, the presidential nominee of that party in 1896, declared only a few days before his death that he meant to vote for Mr. McKinley because "Mr. Bryan is the high priest of Populism, a faction that is already strong enough to menace the best interests of safe government." Other prominent Palmer Democrats of 1896 have made similar expressions — among them such men as Mr. Carlisle, Mr. Hewitt, and Mr. Eckels. Besides men who openly declare themselves, there is an increasing number of independent voters who, whatever doubt they may feel as regards other questions, resent the bringing up of the old silver controversy again.

It is regrettable that it must take eight years of the public attention to eliminate this old subject from political discussion, which has long ago been eliminated from practical affairs. This political campaign is, in effect, conducted chiefly for the personal education of Mr. Bryan. Left to itself the Democratic party would not again have so foolishly fallen into the hands of its Populistic masters.

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The great commercial interests have no choice — they feel obliged to vote against possible depreciation and repudiation. For this reason all other issues of the campaign are of small importance in the great commercial centres. The general feeling of conservative men of affairs, in all the Eastern States at least, has been expressed by Mr. G. G. Williams, president of the Chemical National Bank in New York, who said: —

"It is impossible for any right-thinking man to support a financial revolutionist who proposes, as does Mr. Bryan, to cut in two the value of the nation's money."

And Mr. Abram S. Hewitt, a democrat of great eminence, long a public servant of distinction, and an example of the very highest type of American business men, has written: —

"I have but little sympathy with the Republican party and as a rule have found its leaders to be opportunists and not statesmen. Nevertheless, . . . it is certainly a lesser evil to continue the Government in the hands of the Republican party for the next four years than to encounter the perils which would confront us in case Bryan and his followers should have the opportunity of putting in practice the insane [financial] policy to which they are committed."

The revival of the silver controversy, therefore, seems certain to hold together the Republican masses; to bring to the support of the party all the strong and conservative commercial and financial interests of the country, and an unknown but increasing number of independent voters, many of whom might under other conditions have found reasons for voting with the Democrats.

IMPERIALISM AS AN ISSUE

BUT there has been no lack of efforts to withdraw public attention from the silver issue, the efforts notably of Mr. Schurz, of Mr. Olney, and of Mr. Edward M. Shepard, who try to arouse the public to the dangers of imperialism. There is little evidence of their success, heartily as the jaded public would welcome relief. The truth seems to be that the mass of men simply do not believe that our liberties are in danger because of our occupation of Porto Rico and the Philippine Islands, whatever mistakes we may have committed there.

Mr. Schurz declared in his open correspondence with Secretary Gage that, even if the gold standard be not already made secure by law, the Republican party would have only itself to blame if it did not make it secure at the next session of Congress — before the next President can come into power. Mr. Gage replied that if the country indorsed Mr. Bryan and his programme in November, it would be an unheard-of and impossible thing for an outgoing Congress to enact further laws in the face of a popular majority. But Mr. Schurz and Mr. Shepard swallow the whole logic of alarm, and say that it is better even to accept a financial and industrial earthquake, if it come, than to pursue our present policy in the Philippine Islands. In his Cooper Union speech of September 28, Mr. Schurz declared that "our moral credit with the world is thoroughly ruined." He went on: —

"The present crisis is fully as momentous as the Revolution which created the republic, and as the Civil War which held it together and purged it of slavery. For now we find ourselves confronted by a powerful attempt, advancing under seductive guises, to fasten upon the country a policy essentially putting in peril the best fruits of the great struggles of the past; . . . a policy which, utterly demoralizing this democracy, working through universal suffrage by the destruction of its ideal beliefs and aspirations, will leave to our children, instead of a free, happy, and peaceably powerful commonwealth, a mere sham republic tossed and torn by wild passions and rapacious ambitions, and bound to sink in disorder, disaster, and disgrace."

A COMPANY, NOT A PARTY

When one recalls the bungling and bumptious little company that has managed the anti-Imperialist campaign for the last two years and the small show of popular approval that they won last year, — a company that has failed to become a party because of the mere children of theory who manage it, — is it not possible that even Mr. Schurz has mistaken a theory for government itself? With the profoundest respect for him, it is fair to recall that his oratorical temperament has before made him the victim of impractical theories. A passion for liberty is the noblest of all passions, and it is the noblest natures that have it. But this way also lies — rhetoric, not the doing of practical tasks of infinite difficulty

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And most men of successful experience in doing large practical tasks, take the view of the present "crisis" expressed by General Palmer, who said also, just before his death, that Imperialism is a false alarm.

Certainly Imperialism is yet a forced issue whatever it may become hereafter. The political party in the opposition — in our present imperfect state of campaigning — feels bound to decry any positive action by the party in power. Such criticism is made the more certain if the party in power have had in hand a war or the problems that follow a war. It was so after the Mexican War; it was so after the Civil War; it was bound to be so after the Spanish War. If, therefore, we had abandoned the Philippines, the party in the opposition would now be sharply scoring the cowardice of the party in power because it had left the archipelago to internal strife and a menace to the peace of the world; and this is true, whichever party had been in power.

The warp of anti-Imperialism, then, is the sheer opposition of the party out of power to the most conspicuous thing that the party in power has done. The woof of it is the objection that theoretical minds make to any action that does violence to their theories, whatever may be the stress of new conditions.

Anti-Imperialism is not an historic or natural Democratic cry. In the strongest Democratic States there are many prominent Democrats who uphold the policy of the President — Senator Morgan in Alabama, for example. Another example is General Alexander R. Lawton, of Georgia; and among the reasons that he gives for his refusal to vote for Mr. Bryan and the refusal of other Southern men like him, are —

"We are patriotic, and are desirous of suppressing those who give aid and comfort to our enemies.

"We are progressive, and favor legitimate expansion of our commerce and our power."

In these same States, too, are large bodies of men who are not ruled by the consent of the governed; and there would be little moral force in a complaint from Mississippi or Louisiana or the Carolinas against the political programme of the Administration for Porto Rico or the Philippines. The Administration orators have made the most of this.

Furthermore, the plan proposed by Mr. Bryan — to withdraw our troops from the Philippines and to permit the people to govern themselves under our protection from foreign enemies — would, according to the testimony of every responsible man who personally knows the people and the present situation in the islands, result in anarchy; we should speedily have to send troops back there again. Mr. Schurz's plan — to withdraw our troops and tell the islanders that they may govern themselves — is practically the same as Mr. Bryan's. What our Government is doing, through a patriotic and able Commission, is to assure them that they may have self-government as soon as they will organize it and show that they can maintain it. Indeed, the Commission is organizing it for them as fast as possible.

The whole discussion of Imperialism is a discussion, then, of theories, not of conditions; and it is more likely to win votes for the party of action than for the party of criticism — the more likely because one thing is stronger in the American people than party feeling, and that is fair play. It seems to most minds nothing but fair that the Administration should have time to work out its policy. Many men who criticise it will yet vote for it.

FROTH AND TRUTH ABOUT TRUSTS

NOR is there reason to think that the discussion of trusts will change many men's votes from either party to the other. The Democrats have possibly indulged in the fiercer declarations against the increasing aggregation of business. But prominent men in the management of each party are shareholders in "trusts"; and the ice-trust in New York and the cotton-bale trust in Arkansas have demonstrated the weakness of declamation in the presence of a good investment.

The truth is, the aggregation of capital in large enterprises is a phase of economic development that was as inevitable as the gold standard or the growth of our exports or the decline in the rate of interest. They have not been especially fostered by statutes (except those great companies that a protective tariff has helped), and they cannot be greatly hindered by law. The movement is the inevitable result of cheap and swift

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hauling, the better organization of industry — the general tightening of the hoops of the world. Wretched humbugs have come in the general movement; individual hardship has been inflicted; a deal of wild speculation has been done; and honest men and honest enterprises have now and then become victims of a sort of juggernaut. But the introduction of all other machinery has caused similar displacements; for the so-called trust is nothing but a piece of industrial machinery. It is, in fact, only a large corporation. It must be regulated; it must be required to do its work with publicity; it will at last survive only in so far as it does a genuine social service. And the social service that it now does when properly directed is enormous.

But no remedy for the abuses of this economic machinery has yet lent itself to very clear formulation for political uses. In fact, the sheer brute strength of money — which the campaign orator often means when he says "trusts" — becomes less and less. Interest is lower, and money easier to borrow, than it was four years ago.

No vote-changing agitation against concentrated financial power is possible in a year when, as now, we are prosperous and have international duties to engage us. This year the old silver issue is the main thing, and the talk about trusts is really part and parcel of the old debate about a monetary standard. There is no evidence that the trust, as a separate political issue, is playing any effective part in the campaign.

THE TRUSTS AND WAGES

THE literature of the subject has greatly increased. But it is practically all academic or demagogic except the Report issued by the Bureau of Labor Statistics at Washington. This Report contains new facts, and it is a real contribution to economics and sociology; for it is a first-hand scientific document.

The Bureau of Labor Statistics had authority to investigate only one aspect of the trust — its relation to wages and employment. But that is a very important aspect. Fourteen "trusts" — that is, large companies that have been made by the consolidation of small ones — were selected, and the pay-rolls were examined before consolidation and afterwards. Before consolidation all the companies that now compose these fourteen trusts employed 33,637 skilled laborers, and after consolidation 40,217; and before consolidation 43.669 unskilled laborers, and after consolidation 54,214. As to wages for both skilled and unskilled labor, twelve of the fourteen combinations have increased them and two have decreased them. Only one had reduced the wages of unskilled labor. The increase rate of wages of unskilled laborers was more than nineteen per cent since 1897. A comparison is made between the rate of wages paid by these consolidations and the constituent companies for a corresponding period; and the increase of wages by the consolidations was more rapid than it was by the companies.

The trusts selected by the Commissioner of Labor Statistics for investigation were prosperous companies. During the period of rapid consolidation no doubt many disreputable and purely speculative companies have disturbed labor conditions. But the prosperous consolidations are the only ones that will endure. That they cheapen production, raise wages, and except in certain protected industries decrease the cost to the consumer is as plain as any fact in life.

LOOKING TOWARDS PROFITS NOT WAGES

IT was about the relation of the corporation to the laborer that Mr. Abram S. Hewitt was speaking sixteen years ago, when he said in Congress that we are now entering upon "the final struggle for industrial freedom." Then, he declared: —

"The world will be filled with wealth, partly the accumulations of past ages, and more the product of the present age, when the genius of man has made him master of all the subtle forces of nature. Capital will be superabundant, and therefore cheap. But capital will then be the servant, and no longer the master, of labor. Labor will no longer be hired by capital, but will hire it. It will no longer work for wages, but for profits."

Any man who knows the history of our slow progress toward industrial freedom knows that we have taken longer steps toward this dream within the last quarter of a century than in many preceding centuries. Productive combinations are part of the ma-

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chinery in the better organization of the world whereby we have quickened our pace.

So much more hopeful are facts, as Commissioner Wright collects and presents them, and a true philosophy of human progress as a man like Mr. Hewitt explains it — so much better are these things than campaign literature!

"SYNDICATED" ADMINISTRATIONS

WRETCHED stuff as most of the official literature put out by the political committees is, this has been a campaign fruitful of interesting letters. In addition to the letters already referred to by Mr. Schurz, Secretary Gage, Mr. Shepard, Mr. Hewitt, General Lawton, and to hundreds of others, Mr. Richard Olney wrote an explanation of his objections to President McKinley. He came near to expressing the most widely felt objection by thoughtful men to the administration when he spoke of it as a "syndicated" administration. The thought is not very clear, but the hint is strong — the hint, namely, that the government is too much in business, has too much to do with commercial, industrial, and financial affairs, and that the President owes too much directly to great business interests for his election — all which is true. But this again is criticism, and not a plan of action. Moreover, it is criticism that cuts both ways. If the government, under Mr. Bryan, should undertake to make sixteen silver dollars instead of thirty-two equal in value to a gold dollar, that, too, would be a "syndicated" administration and a badly "underwritten" one to boot.

The great forces of modern commercial organization have in fact changed the tasks and even the functions of government; and every man who thinks philosophically recognizes the change and is concerned about the final result. It is the violence that these changes do to the theories built on other conditions that so deeply disturbs all thoughtful men — men who know that the finer and higher uses of politics are not commercial, but are, in their last analysis, social. The practical trouble in our political practice is that the men who deplore the tightening grasp of vested interests on government show no practical method of relief. They content themselves with criticism; and when a man or a party so contracts the habit of criticism as to mistake it for action, its usefulness is gone.

WHY NEGATIVE PARTIES FAIL

The difficulty of removing politics from business is made the greater because any direct effort to remove it is likely to fail. The "anti"-parties all fail. Even the anti-slavery party, as such, failed — failed till events brought it the positive and concrete task of saving the Union. The anti-Masons, the anti-foreign party, the prohibitionists, the anti-gold parties, from the greenbackers down, have all failed to hold public attention for long periods.

Public opinion centres itself on positive programmes; it likes men who do things; it delights in accomplished results. It is a poor tool to undo things with. This quality of public opinion makes the professional reformer's work doubly difficult, because he usually tries to undo something. The civil-service reformers succeeded because they were wise enough not to depend on public opinion, or party opinion. They took positive action. The essential weakness of the Democratic party this year is that it stands for *anti*-gold and *anti*-trust legislation and *anti*-imperialism. It lacks a *positive* programme. If it should succeed, we should still have a "syndicated" administration, whether Mr. Bryan and Mr. Olney would believe it or not.

PUBLIC OPINION AND THE WAR-LORDS

WHILE the Powers have been engaged with the Chinese trouble, a change of ministries has taken place in Great Britain and Japan, and our own presidential campaign has been in progress. In these countries, therefore, public opinion has at least indirectly been consulted or heeded. In Russia and Germany, the war-lord method of conducting the foreign office is beyond the reach of popular approval or indignation. The most radical proposal has come from one of these Governments, and the other is under the greatest suspicion, whether justly or not. The masses of the people the world over are nearer together than war-lords are to one another or to the people.

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THE MOST STRIKING FIGURE IN PUBLIC LIFE

THE most enlivening performance of the campaign has been Governor Roosevelt's unparalleled tour of speech-making — unparalleled even by Mr. Bryan's. Two months of public speaking, from Wyoming to New York, is a physical feat that hardly another man could perform. "Does it not tire you?" some one is said to have asked Governor Roosevelt. "On the contrary, it's great sport," he replied — this in spite of his rough experience in Colorado.

The truth is, whether you admire him or regard him as tooth and claw in politics, Governor Roosevelt is by all odds the most interesting personality in our public life, and the man that has won a more spontaneous enthusiasm from the people that like him than any other man of his time. He is the best public hero that has come in this generation. His genuineness and his earnestness are as irresistible as his courage; for, although he lacks the solemnity of dulness, he is more in earnest than any other public servant. He is the only man now in our public life who is frank and sincere enough to win confidence by his very mistakes. The closer men get to him, the stronger becomes his hold on them. Yet his political enemies consider him the incarnation of recklessness. He has done more things these forty-three years than any other man among us. He is, therefore, incomprehensible to men who do few things.

The worst mistake of judgment that can be set down against him is his fear that in the Vice-Presidency he would become inert. On the contrary, the Vice-Presidency itself, if he win it, is likely to wake up and to recall the days when men found it a perch instead of a shelf.

A GREAT CHANCE FOR A GREAT LEADER

THE most interesting force in American politics from the beginning of the Republic has been the party founded by Jefferson; and it never presented a more attractive problem than now. If Mr. McKinley be reëlected, we shall see this strange spectacle — nearly half the population opposed to his party for traditional reasons or for reasons more specific, and this half without political leadership. Yet this is the half that is nearer the soil; the half that feels better than it reasons; the half that responds more readily to every democratic impulse; the half that bears at least its full share of the burdens of government; the half that cannot administer affairs in ordinary times but has always been the safeguard of popular liberty in every country in the greatest crises. It has given us many great political characters — Jefferson, Jackson, Tilden, Cleveland — and most of our best political impulses; and yet it has been the greatest hindrance to all routine practical progress.

This great democratic mass, if Mr. Bryan be retired, will stand without leadership as it has stood but once before since Jefferson wrought his genius on it. After the Civil War it was for a time leaderless, being burdened with hostility to the Union. Once since, it had a leader in Mr. Tilden. Later leaders have either failed to hold its unreasoning affection, as Mr. Cleveland failed, or to direct it wisely, as Mr. Bryan has failed.

For a leader of genius no such opportunity has come in our recent political history.

THE INCREASE OF COLLEGE STUDENTS

THE unprecedented increase of new students this year at all the principal universities and colleges has a twofold meaning. It is an evidence of prosperity: more families can afford to send sons and daughters to college than usual. But this is not all; for the proportion of students who pay their own way also increases; and this increase means that the appreciation of academic training keeps pace with the growth of population, whether in prosperous or unprosperous periods.

The best technical and scientific institutions, the schools of general culture, and the professional schools all show approximately the same increase; and only the theological schools show a decline.

There can hardly be too large an attendance at our colleges so long as the sturdy common sense of American life keeps its balance — the common sense that forbids even an effort to make a distinct "educated" class which when "educated" is unwilling to do the common tasks at which young men must first try their mettle. In Germany there is a surplus of scholars who are worth nothing to the com-

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munity. They might have been good craftsmen, but university training has left them unwilling to do the common work of the world. But in almost every neighborhood in our country the college men of last year are doing work that justifies their training by showing what training does for men. Few American youth, praise Heaven, have careers made for them: they must make their own careers. The colleges themselves foster this feeling and thereby prove worthy of the rich endowments that continue to be showered upon them. It is a healthful circle of life — men of fortune endow schools which train youth who win success and in turn endow schools to train other youth; and thus the circle becomes perpetual. And the colleges are a more natural product of American life and less superimposed institutions for the fortunate class than they ever were before.

THE VALUE OF THE TRANSVAAL

A GOOD deal of southern as of northern Africa is desert. Even in what is counted as grazing land there are parts where it takes six acres to keep a sheep. The only part of South Africa that is well watered is a rather broad strip down the east coast, and a very narrow one along the south. From Delagoa Bay down, the land rises rapidly as it recedes from the sea, until it reaches the line of mountains which forms the watershed, and which is nowhere over two hundred miles inland. The Orange River, which empties into the Atlantic, begins hardly more than a hundred miles from the Indian Ocean. Consequently the sea-winds are quickly wrung dry. An annual rainfall of twenty-five inches is reached only to the east of the meridian of Bloemfontein; in the greater part of Cape Colony it is less than ten. Only the extensive use of irrigation can make agriculture in South Africa important. One of the grievances of the Uitlanders was the protective tariff which the Boers levied on farm products. The Transvaal to-day does not feed itself. It has only 50,000 acres under cultivation. Much of its area will never be suitable for anything but grazing. In both of the former republics scattered ranches and a sparse population will continue to occupy a large part of the territory.

The only exception to the pastoral and rural character of South African life is in the Rand district about Johannesburg. This contains two-thirds of the white population of the Transvaal, and is the great gold-mining centre. Twenty years ago the existence of these rich deposits was unsuspected. Now South Africa is the second gold-producing country of the world. The Rand is by no means the only region where gold is found, but it is by far the richest field. Yet its supply is far from exhaustless. The estimated value of the gold to be mined is $3,500,000,000. It is probable that in from fifty to seventy or eighty years the entire yield will have been taken out, and the Rand, having ceased to be valuable, will be abandoned by most of its inhabitants, obliged to seek elsewhere their means of livelihood.

South Africa as a whole gives no promise of becoming an important factor in the economic life of the world. Mr. Bryce's forecast of the gold regions outside of the Rand throws light on the whole situation. He says: —

"Assuming that a fair proportion of the quartz-reef gold-fields turn out well, it may be predicted that population will increase in and around them during the next ten years, and that for some twenty years more this population will maintain itself, though of course not necessarily in the same spots, because as the reefs first developed become exhausted, the miners will shift to new places. After these thirty or possibly forty years, that is to say, before the middle of next century, the country, having parted with its gold, will have to fall back on its pasture and its arable land; but, having become settled and developed, it may count on retaining a reasonable measure of prosperity."

By the annexation of the Boer States, Great Britain has added to her imperial domain a territory about five-sixths as great as France. The Orange Free State is almost as large as England, and the Transvaal about equal in area to the British Isles. But in the total of the British Empire they make but a small showing. Their combined area is less than 200,000 square miles.

During the last generation, England's colonial possessions and dependencies have increased about one-third. Their area is now over 3,700,000 square miles in America, 3,000,000 in Australasia, 2,800,000 in Africa, and 1,000,000 in Asia — by far the largest dominion ever held by one government

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THE WORLD-WIDE CHINESE TROUBLE

THE decaying Government of China has given the responsible Powers of the world the most difficult and the most interesting international task that ever engaged all the nations; and all the nations acting, or even trying to act, in concert is a new spectacle in this jarring world. On its face any historical student would say that the problem is impossible of peaceful solution.

In an article elsewhere in this magazine the influences at work among the Powers, have been pointed out and an effort has been made to estimate their strength. In China, there is no government in the sense in which the rest of the world has government. Yet there is a strong national feeling — a feeling that under opposition asserts itself against foreigners with fanatical strength. But it is a national feeling that properly directed can be made a constructive force in a new China.

THE POLICY OF PRESERVING THE EMPIRE

THE result will depend on the purpose held by the Powers, or by some of them, in the beginning. If there be a sincere wish to preserve the empire, all well-informed men agree that it can be preserved. Such a policy will require the continued formal recognition of the government, the punishment, by the Chinese government itself under foreign pressure, of the violent anti-foreign leaders — those who have been directly guilty of murder — the stripping of the empress of all real authority, the reinstatement of the emperor, if his health be sound enough, and the gathering about him in places of real authority of the most liberal men of the empire, and the recognition throughout the provinces of men of liberal opinions.

Along with such a definite programme there must go demonstration of consideration for Chinese traditions, especially for ancestor-worship; and the national feeling — "China for the Chinese" — must be respected and a sound national life built on it.

These children of the immemorial past, whose outlook on life is radically different from ours, will give their lives to preserve their own social ideals, if violence be done to them. But by the pressure of commerce, Western civilization could, in half a century, lift the empire to a responsible place in the family of nations.

One of the most interesting aspects of the whole problem is the test that will be made of the civilization of Europe. If the Powers are tolerant and unselfish enough to preserve the empire, such a triumph for civilization will be new in the history of the world; the era of sheer conquest will seem to have ended, and all governments will move on a higher level.

This policy has from the beginning of the trouble been the American policy. Whether it succeed or not, it is to our lasting credit that we have done and are doing our best to make it succeed.

For this reason it was proper for us to withdraw our troops and to open preliminary negotiations with Li Hung Chang and Prince Ching, thus respecting the Chinese Government as long as it makes even a pretence of existence, and showing good faith in our effort to preserve the empire. A real settlement would follow such a policy in due course. To "settle" before negotiation is merely to wreak vengeance on a pitifully weak and superstitious people.

THE PLAN OF PARTITION

THE other plan, and the easier and less creditable, is to make war on China, or to permit her to make war, and to divide the empire. It requires no skill nor forbearance to do this. But it may require much work afterward to keep peace between the Powers. Under such a course, too, China will have no chance to become a modernized empire. The Chinese will become in effect Russian, German, and English subjects — India over again.

Russia, all the world believes, under this policy, would ultimately become the chief ruler of the northern provinces, the Russians being closer akin to the Mongols in method than any other people, the Japanese hardly excepted, and Germany would take all that a belligerent military spirit can acquire. These are the aggressive Powers, and of these Russia

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is willing to wait, for her natural movement of population and industry into farther Asia will give her dominion there at last.

As the problem stands to-day, Germany gives the greatest cause of uneasiness. If partition come, France will be permitted to hold her southern provinces, and Japan will desire at least the territory that was denied to her in the settlement that followed the Japan-China War. The clash most feared will be Great Britain's necessity to control the great Yangtse Valley which leads back to India — provided Her Majesty's Government, with the Ministry newly endorsed at the recent election and the war in Africa ended, wakes up to take a leading part in the Asiatic problem.

OUR INTEREST IN THE EMPIRE

AS for the United States, the partition of the empire would, it is to be feared, give some of the partitioning governments excuse for annulling the agreement made with us that the door for trade in China shall be kept open. In no event have we territorial ambitions. We could lose only the trade privileges that ought to be ours. But we should also miss the satisfaction of seeing the oldest empire in the world preserved to work out its own political and industrial salvation. It is for this great end that we stand, and, whether we fail or succeed, it is a worthy effort. Every patriotic citizen feels a satisfaction in the efforts of our Government directed toward so noble a purpose. A brief review of events will make these conclusions plain.

PRACTICAL ASPECTS OF CHINA'S FUTURE

WITH the relief of the legations at Pekin, by the allied troops on August 15, the centre of interest was shifted to the capitals of the Powers. Pekin was in anarchy, and both the whereabouts and the disposition of the fugitive court were then unknown.

If the integrity of empire was to be preserved, compensation must take the form of money indemnities. But China's income is already heavily mortgaged. To guarantee the interest payments on recent loans she has already pledged not only her foreign customs receipts, but also a portion of her internal transit dues — one-tenth at least of her annual revenue. The collection of these taxes is in foreign hands. China's fiscal administration squeezes everything that can pay, yet its yield hardly suffices for the Government's needs. The aggregate of the foreign demands, if they can be limited to money, will be large enough seriously to embarrass an imperial treasury whose receipts, all told, are not over $170,000,000 annually. It is true that administrative reform, economic development, or an increase of import duties would result in a larger revenue. But either of the first two could be accomplished only by foreigners taking a hand in the government.

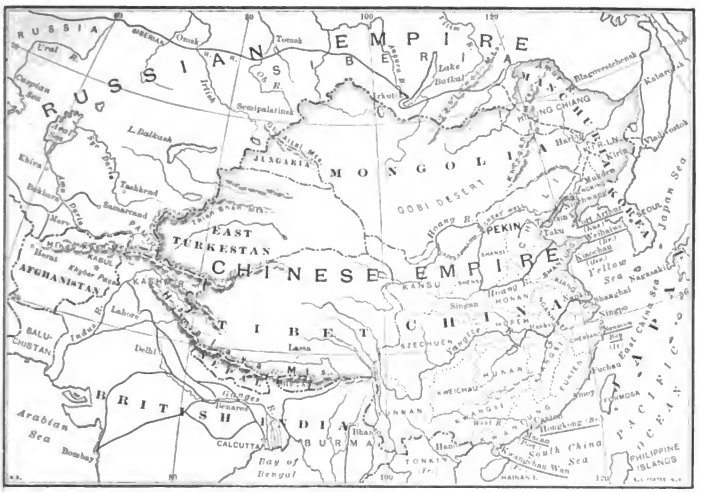
As for the import duties, China is not free to increase them from the treaty rate of five per cent without the consent of the foreign nations, who would hardly agree to raise their indemnities by a tax levied on their own trade. It is difficult to avoid the conclusion that, whatever form of settlement is agreed upon, it will probably result in making inevitable some kind of participation of foreigners in China's management of her own affairs. In Egypt a problem containing some of the elements now involved was peacefully solved; but the present case is much more difficult, for only one Great Power had control in Egypt.

Under these circumstances our own Government did not forget that we were in China to secure our own rights, not to adjudicate those of others, nor by taking part in coercion possibly to be drawn into war at last. Our earlier leadership in the international councils was due to our State Department's skill in defining what were the common ends and so promoting unanimous action. The moment that any intention on the part of other Powers to pursue divergent ends should begin to appear, our course was to pursue our own ends consistently and with dignity, and not to be drawn into complications.

OUR POSITION DEFINED

PEKIN fell August 15th. On the 20th an application was made by the Chinese Government, through Li Hung Chang, for the appointment of an American Commissioner to open peace negotiations. The reply of our State Department was a clear statement of our position, which surely is a

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Foreign Possessions in China are underscored.

MAP OF ASIA SHOWING THE CHINESE EMPIRE, ITS NEIGHBORS AND THE FOREIGN POSSESSIONS.

reasonable one, and it was given to the Chinese Minister on August 25, saying that

"... this Government is ready to welcome any overtures for a truce, and invite the other Powers to join, when security is established in the Chinese capital, and the Chinese Government shows its ability and willingness to make, on its part, an effective suspension of hostilities there and elsewhere in China. When this is done, — and we hope it will be done promptly, — the United States will be prepared to appoint a representative to join with the representatives of the other similarly interested Powers and of the authoritative and responsible Government of the Chinese empire to attain the ends declared in our circular to the Powers of July 3, 1900."

The critical points raised by this memorandum were: Could China make an "effective suspension of hostilities throughout the empire," and, would the Powers join with us, when the proper time came, to attain these ends?

On the first point the attitude of the Yangtse-Kiang Viceroys was encouraging. These officers had their provinces well in hand, and rigorously repressed disorders. Trouble broke out at Hankow on the 21st, but was promptly put down by the native authorities. In Fukien and Kiang-Su, however, threatening mobs appeared, and the burning of a Japanese temple at Amoy on the 24th was instantly followed by the landing of Japanese marines. Amoy is the single first-rate harbor on the Pacific which China has not yet "leased" to a foreign nation. The news of this action created a stir.

Already an ominous report had come from Manchuria, four days earlier, to the effect that Russia was engaged in "rectifying" her frontier there, and there were subsequent massacres of Chinese. On August 30, however, Japan withdrew the forces landed, though not her claim of this province in the event of partition.

On the same day on which the Japanese marines went ashore, our State Department sent to its diplomatic representatives abroad an identical note. Germany and Great Britain

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had refused to recognize Li as Commissioner, "owing to the lack of any properly accredited authority on the Chinese side." In view of German war preparations and the bellicose utterances of the emperor, the uncertainty regarding what was to be the policy of that country was a matter of serious concern to the other Powers — a concern which this refusal by no means relieved, since if peace was to be made it was certainly necessary to be prepared to accept somebody.

THE WITHDRAWAL OF TROOPS

THE next move was made by Russia, which on August 28 informed our Government that she had no designs of territorial acquisition in China; that the occupation of New Chwang (an important position on the railway running north from Tientsin) was only for military purposes; that the troops would be withdrawn on the restoration of order, "if action of other Powers be no obstacle thereto"; and that the Russian troops and Russian Minister at Pekin would also be withdrawn, since in the absence of the Chinese Government they had nothing to stay for. To this our Government replied that, while the continued joint occupation of Pekin by all the Powers was in its opinion the best method of securing the common objects agreed upon by the Powers, all ought to act together, and that "any Power which determines to withdraw its troops from Pekin will necessarily proceed thereafter to protect its interests in China by its own method, and we think that this would make a general withdrawal expedient."

Almost angry opposition was expressed at other capitals to the proposal of any Power to withdraw its troops. But withdrawal meant the giving of the Chinese Government a chance to return to its capital and to reassert its authority if it could. There, too, it could be dealt with. General Chaffee is reported to have recommended the withdrawal of our troops.

Russia's proposal to withdraw was regarded with suspicion. Yet it is probable that she may desire to preserve China from present partition. Even if her motives be not purely benevolent, is not the number of candidates for a share in the spoils now on hand inconveniently large?

The last of September Russia withdrew both her troops and her legation; and the United States prepared to withdraw her troops, leaving her legation and a guard in Pekin.

THE GERMAN PROPOSAL

THE next move was Germany's proposal to demand from China the surrender of "those who have been proved to be the original and real instigators of the outrages" as a preliminary to opening negotiations. This added a new complication; for it would lead to further hostilities.

The obvious impracticability of this proposal — unless those Powers that should assent to it meant to engage at once in conquest — soon became obvious. Our Government objected. The arrival of Count Waldersee as commander of all the allied forces and Germany's warlike preparation seemed to indicate that the end of the empire had come. The situation was made worse by the report that the empress favored war. Prince Tuan, the extremest anti-foreigner, was elevated to a post of honor.

But the German proposal was modified and softened so that war need not precede negotiations; for in addition to our objection to its bellicose features, Great Britain, Russia, and France proposed modifications. And Japan expressed a preference for a more orderly proceeding. The Chinese emperor, having again put himself in communication with the world, sent a pacific letter of regret to the German emperor.

CHINA'S OWN PACIFIC MOVE

STRAIGHTWAY, on September 28, another radical change of policy was announced on the part of the Chinese throne — that Prince Tuan had been stripped of his new honors, and that he and other high leaders of the anti-foreign insurrection were to be tried for crimes against foreigners.

When this record is closed, the outlook is for a peaceful settlement; but the lack of a stable purpose by the Chinese throne causes grave danger. If there is to be war, we will not take part in it. If war can be prevented, we can yet use our influence to prevent it. This is a position of safety and of dignity. If peace be kept, it will be by the plan proposed by our Government.

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THE POWERS' STAKES IN CHINA

THE INTERESTS AND AMBITIONS OF RUSSIA, ENGLAND, JAPAN, GERMANY, AND FRANCE—WHERE THE CLASH COMES —COMMERCIAL AND TERRITORIAL CAUSES OF FRICTION

TO understand clearly Russia's interest in the East one must recall her long eastward movement — a movement as natural to her as the westward movement was to the English race.

The Eastern expansion of Russia into Siberia has been going on for three centuries. By 1650 it had reached Behring Sea; and after the occupation of Kamchatka in 1697 only the Pacific lay beyond. Nor was even this the end; the eighteenth century joined Alaska to the Asiatic territory. To the south, however, the Russian advance received a check. The warlike Manchus, then in the act of conquering China, were not the people to step out of their own province and leave the newcomers in undisputed possession. In 1689 commissioners of the two countries came to an agreement whereby Russia withdrew to the northward. It was not until 1850 that this backward step was retraced, and the flag advanced again to the Amur. In 1860 Russia went forward to Korea and the Sea of Japan.

Checked in the extreme east, the tide of invasion in the eighteenth century rolled slowly to the southwest, to join forces eventually south of the Urals with another wave which poured from southern Russia up to and then across the Ural River. This advance is still going on. The Caucasus provinces are fast filling up with peasants whose labors are covering the rich arable land with waving wheat. Bokhara acknowledges the sovereignty of the Czar. Pamir has been within Russia's limits since 1895. Turkey, Persia, Afghanistan, Kafiristan, and the Chinese Empire — there is Russia's southern line. And in Persia it is well known what party has been getting the upper hand of late. The opportunity of the South African war was not one for Russia to lose.

The development of Siberia is in its early infancy. Forests stretch in a great belt across the continent, between the zone of arctic winter and that of agriculture. The area of this belt is one-half the country, which is twenty-five times greater than Germany. Its mineral wealth is great; only the most primitive methods are in use, but without modern machinery, more gold is produced than in any country in the world outside of the United States, the Transvaal, and Australia. The coal of Sakhalin is not inferior to that of Wales, and Siberian petroleum competes with our own for the Chinese market.

THE VALUE OF SIBERIA TO RUSSIA

Siberia is somewhat larger and more populous than Canada, and not unlike it in climate, topography, and natural resources. The Trans-Siberian railway runs in the latitude of England; Vladivostock is in the same latitude with Marseilles, and Port Arthur further south than Naples. The province has a population of six millions, five-sixths of whom are European, and the increase by immigration alone is about two hundred thousand a year. Its two largest cities each number over fifty thousand inhabitants; one of them is the seat of a university having five hundred students and a library of over two hundred thousand volumes. Luxuriously equipped express trains, with sleepers and dining cars, are now running into the heart of Asia. In the fall of 1897 the Trans-Siberian carried into Russia three hundred and twenty thousand tons of cereals, and had to refuse transportation to much of the grain that offered, owing to the inadequacy of its rolling stock. By 1905 at latest it is expected that through trains to the Pacific will enable passengers to go from London or Paris to Port Arthur in twelve days, and to Shanghai in fourteen — a journey which now takes twenty-eight.

The value of Siberia to Russia is simply incalculable. Already the Czar's subjects number 130,000,000. Germany, with an active, energetic people, and an increasing population hemmed in by powerful neighbors, is

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attempting to establish colonies in distant parts of the earth, and is having a hard time to find desirable territory. The Anglo-Saxon has been borne like seed before the wind into every corner of the globe. Russia can find plenty of room for her overflow on her own adjoining estate. Of prolific race, and with boundless natural advantages, she has only to wait and grow. In Asia there is plenty of room. And she regards Asia as her own to grow in.

It has seemed necessary to say so much because it is only in the light of Russia's past history in Asia that we can form a clear idea of her ambitions, and of the policy she is likely to pursue in the East. That policy does not change from year to year, or from reign to reign. It makes no difference what Minister is in charge, or how long events oppose a temporary barrier to the constant purpose of the Czar's government. The Russian believes that his country is destined to become all-powerful. A kind of inevitableness has seemed to characterize its growth. Sebastopol apparently dealt it a heavy blow; yet almost in the very hour of that humiliation an empire on the Pacific was silently won. A single glance at the map is enough to set the imagination powerfully at work.

RUSSIA'S KINSHIP TO ASIA

Moreover, Russia is more likely to be successful in governing the Mongolian populations of eastern Asia than any other European nation. Her very failings are in her favor. In civilization as in mental attitude the Slav is half an Oriental. The Chinaman recognizes the emperor as the father of his people. If once the transfer of affection from Pekin to St. Petersburg were effected, there would be little reason for the newly adopted children of the White Czar to feel the change, and none to regret it. Russian government is not always good, but that would only make the Chinaman feel more at home. A little cruelty and corruption on the part of despotic officials would, in his mind, be far preferable to English sanitary regulations and courts of law. Perhaps industrial competition might breed race hatred, but at present at least it is certainly true that there is little of this feeling between Slav and Mongol. If Russia and China were left to themselves, it is as near to certain as anything can be that Russia would eventually be the acknowledged master, and that China would find the change decidedly to her benefit.

In the matter of capital, Russia is too poor to supply her own needs. She is the great debtor nation of Europe, and is bound to remain so for a long time to come. The development of Siberia would be of great advantage to her, but this can take place only by an inflow of capital from the money centres of the world. Far from desiring to prevent the other nations from making investments in whatever part of Asia she holds under her sway, Russia ought to give them all possible encouragement in doing so. Only in this way can her potential riches become actual.

WHY RUSSIA GOES SLOWLY

And here is the conflict in Russia's own mind. Politically she would conquer. Industrially she cannot go too far nor too fast. In the volume of trade with China, Russia falls behind Great Britain, the United States, Japan, Germany, and France, which take rank in this respect in the order named. This is because she is herself a country of low industrial development. Her exports are chiefly agricultural products and petroleum. She could not supply the manufactured articles which now go to China from other countries if she had an absolute monopoly of the market. Japan has become a heavy importer of American machinery. The same thing will be true in China when its time of industrial development comes. Baldwin locomotives are now in use on the eastern sections of the Trans-Siberian. In commerce as in the matter of making investments Russia is not in a position to compete to any great extent with other nations, and a policy of exclusion directed against them injures her possessions without benefiting her. Yet Russia has always been exclusive and is likely to remain so.

ENGLAND'S POSITION

But with Great Britain and Japan the case is different from the case of Russia. In the amount of China's commerce, which falls to their share, they stand respectively first and third in the list of nations. Moreover, they have political interests, which clash with those of Russia. Their trade interests have led

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them to advocate the policy of the open door. But if Russia were to propose to occupy China, at the same time guaranteeing that there should be absolute freedom of trade, honest and impartial government, and liberty to outside capital to invest wherever an opening offered, both Great Britain and Japan would make strenuous opposition, notwithstanding the great commercial advantage which they would derive from such a change. Great Britain, indeed, has no desire to occupy any part of China herself, unless it becomes necessary to forestall other Powers. Just at present, at any rate, a chance to add to her territory would have very little attraction for her. The white man's burden has been too heavy on her shoulders, of late, to make her anxious to increase the load. But there is India. Russia, at the Khyber Pass, is bad enough, but Russia on the borders of Burmah would be worse. And if the myriads of the yellow race should march under the banners of the Czar, how could Britain hope to turn back such an inundation?

JAPAN'S POWER AND AMBITION

As for Japan, she is cooped in densely populated islands, and needs room on the continent to overflow. But already she is so powerful that Russia may well think her a dangerous rival in the far East, and wish to prevent her from becoming still stronger. It will not be forgotten how, at the close of the war between Japan and China, Russia stepped in to prevent Japan from taking the Liao-tung peninsula, and how three years later, with the Russian occupation of Port Arthur and Talien-wan, the White Czar plucked for himself the fruit of victory from which the Mikado had been forced to withdraw his hand. Japan cannot regard Russia otherwise than as a hostile Power.

Russia may well hesitate, in spite of the enormous disproportion in size between the two countries, to provoke Japan too far. Japan is, in both area and population, somewhat greater than Great Britain. Her industrial strength is advancing by leaps. Her mines, railroads, and manufactories pay no tribute to foreign bondholders, for she has kept her development in her own hands. Her capital, invested in profitable enterprises, has rolled up swiftly. Since the war with China, her progress has gone on with accelerated rapidity. She has adopted a comprehensive scheme of military and naval expansion, which will be completed in 1906, so carefully calculated as not to overstrain her financial resources. She has the gold standard. On a war footing her army will number five hundred thousand men, and her fleet, when it is completed, will consist of sixty-seven ships of war, seven of them first-class battleships, besides eleven torpedo-boat destroyers, and one hundred and fifteen torpedo boats.

Taken altogether the record of the transformation of Japan forms the most astonishing chapter in the history of modern times. The story of its awakening seems like a fairy tale. In less than fifty years it has covered the ground which it took Europe six centuries to traverse. In 1854, when first opened to Western civilization, it was a feudal state. In 1889 it became a parliamentary government. To-day it belongs in the family of nations.

Japan and Russia are the two great rivals in the East. Both are in contact with an inferior and effete political power. Will each frustrate the other? Will they divide? Or will they fight? The person who could answer these questions would have advanced a goodly distance toward the solutions of the vexed problem of the far East.

GERMANY'S EAGERNESS FOR TERRITORY

Just how large a part in the destinies of the far East France and Germany are to play it is impossible yet to tell. The conclusion of the Chino-Japanese war saw these two Powers united with Russia in opposition to Japan's securing a foothold on the mainland. At that time it was supposed that considerations of European politics dictated the combination. During the last generation France has sedulously cultivated the friendship of Russia, and Germany has found it to her interest to do the same. This was a part of the policy laid down by Bismarck, and it seems unlikely that Germany can now afford to throw it overboard. Yet Germany's ambition for colonies and trade expansion has now thrust her under Russia's very nose on the Asiatic coast. The occupation of Kiao-Chan can hardly have been anything but a very disagreeable surprise to St. Petersburg. From this foothold in northern China the newcomer

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is certain to extend his power, and is likely to become a barrier in Russia's way if in the progress of time the Slav in contact with the Mongol proves to be the dominant race.

As for France, her ambitions are all in southern China, and as a rivalry with England, who is reaching out from Burmah toward the upper part of the Yangtse basin, is already springing up there, she is likely to find that, in Asia as in Europe, her interests will carry her in Russia's train.

As to ourselves, we want to see China preserved, well governed and prosperous, and to compete for our share of its trade. Beyond that we have no interests there. To promote the peace of the world, to preserve our treaty rights, and to secure the maintenance of order and a stable government in a country where we buy and sell more than any other nation except Great Britain, is in accord both with our general policy in the past, our present interests, and the cause of civilization at large. So astonishing does our lack of any desire for territorial indemnity seem in some quarters of Europe that the order to withdraw our troops was regarded as cowardice! But there is a very rapidly growing appreciation in the United States of the value of the Chinese market.

ROME AS A POLITICAL BOGEY

THE ROMAN REPUBLIC COMPARED WITH THE UNITED STATES — DIVERGENCIES, NOT PARALLELS — THE CAUSES OF ROME'S DECLINE HAD NO RELATION TO PROVINCES

BY

WILLIAM STEARNS DAVIS

AUTHOR OF "A FRIEND TO CÆSAR"

"A LITTLE knowledge is a dangerous thing," and historical parallels are often as dangerous. Forty years ago Southerners declared that they seceded for practically the reasons which animated the colonists of 1776. The cases seemed similar enough to deceive them. To-day the Anti-Imperialists say: "America by holding outlying dependencies is treading in the footsteps of the Roman Republic, and will suffer the same fate." This supposed parallel, I propose to show, is based on a careless reading of history. The Roman Republic fell on account of peculiar internal causes, and would have fallen had it never possessed a province. Rome had political and social conditions entirely unlike those of the United States, and these conditions cost her her liberty.

NO REPRESENTATIVE GOVERNMENT

It is the glory of the United States that the citizen of Oregon is as perfectly represented in our national legislature as the citizen of Maryland. Each has his representative at Washington. The interests of each State are protected, be it far or near. Precisely opposite conditions obtained in Roman Italy. For the election of magistrates or for legislation every citizen had his vote; but that vote could be cast only within the capital city itself. Otherwise Roman citizenship conferred only certain legal and commercial advantages. The voter could send no deputy. To go up thus to an assembly was a duty so arduous that only on rare occasions could the dwellers throughout Italy, in an age without railroads, undertake it; and the instances when they did so in large numbers are recorded as notable events.

In short, after nearly all Italians had become Roman citizens, Rome still continued to employ practically the system of the present New England "town meeting," where every citizen is supposed to represent in person his individual interests. That such a system is unsuitable for any but a small homogeneous community is constantly shown by the fact that New England towns upon gaining about ten thousand inhabitants, are usually glad to change to a "city" government, where the more wieldy "council" takes the place of the ponderous "meeting." Yet with machinery as imperfect as this, the Romans attempted to govern a home territory, larger and far more populous than the State

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of New York. That opportunities for packed assemblies, for important meetings at short notice, for class legislation, for every sort of political mischief are constantly presented in such a system, is too obvious to need proof. It is equally certain that the decisive factor in nearly every case of revolution must be the masses of the capital city, always subservient to the worst political influences.

ABSENCE OF A ROMAN MIDDLE CLASS

Americans should take pride in the fact that our presidential candidates are almost invariably men neither of illustrious birth nor of great wealth. They are drawn from the main source of the present greatness of our nation, the well-to-do class. If Rome had retained such a middle class, its sobriety, thrift, and common sense, its ability to rise to heroic self-sacrifice might have saved her liberties, despite the great flaw in her constitution. But she had lost many of her substantial peasant farmers in the terrible struggle with Hannibal, and she did not replace them. Two factors, neither of them operative in America, made Italy a land of a few rich men, many poor, and almost none between.

The Second Punic War, when Hannibal was crushed by Rome, lasted for seventeen years. It was waged with a fury that finds no parallel in modern times. The frightful devastation wrought in the South during the moil and toil of our Civil War suggests a similarity, but only faintly. The flower of the Italian youth perished by hundreds of thousands: seventy thousand fell in the one battle of Cannæ. The loss through pillaged cities, through the blotting out of whole communities, and the destruction of wealth, can hardly be conceived. Rome was victorious in her struggle with the greatest general known to history; but at what a cost! Modern warfare, even at its worst, is so comparatively dispassionate and humane, and in the case of our own mainland the ocean is so perfect a bulwark against any but naval attacks, that no struggle of the future, however terrific, can accomplish one tithe of the ruin wrought by the death grapple of Rome and Carthage.

Then, precisely when the Italian middle classes were thus piteously reduced, came a great influx of slave labor. Slavery has already become to us a thing of antiquarian interest. It is so alien to the modern spirit, that we cannot easily realize that human chattels were sold within the United States four decades ago. But slavery was the very warp and woof of later Roman society. It was eagerly embraced by the Roman capitalists. After the Second Punic War, came slave labor to take the place of the free farmers who had perished. Slaves were bought cheap; a trifle paid for their food; they drew no wages. The taskmaster's whip kept them busy. Not merely did these captive Celts, Germans, and Asiatics fill up the gaps made by war, but their competition soon ruined most of the free agriculturalists. The surviving small farmers saw their profits vanishing, their lands depreciating. They sold their estates to the great capitalists for goat pastures, and swarmed to the cities, where by government corn doles, and the bribes of candidates for office, they eked out a wretched existence. So constant and insidious was the influence of slavery, that when Cæsar at last pulled down the Republic, the country towns of Italy were decaying, population was rapidly declining, and the great middle class that had won for Rome her glory was nearly gone.

LACK OF PUBLIC SPIRIT IN ROME

It is said of Americans that "they do not take the time to be well governed," and perhaps this accusation contains the germs of a sober truth; but it is possible to cite examples showing that the average Roman so entirely lacked a sense of personal responsibility for his fellow-citizens, that no comparison with American conditions is possible.

In fast-increasing numbers our wealthy men are devoting their fortunes to charity, educational institutions, and like philanthropies; thus indicating that they realize that their money is not for mere selfish enjoyment; that they owe a duty to society in the disposal of their wealth. But I cannot recall a single case in the later Roman Republic where an act of public charity cannot be traced to a vainglorious motive, or be proved to have been a disguised political bribe. To pay a strictly legal debt was the whole financial duty of a Roman.

Our courts are not always infallible; but the proved instances of venal judges or juries

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are hardly to be discovered. The purity of its courts is one of the main props of any government. That this purity was pitifully lacking in the later Republic, no candid student of Roman history will dispute. The juries were drawn from the Senators and Knights, — the governing classes. They had a community of interest with every guilty official. They were so notoriously corrupt that it was possible for a would-be plunderer to calculate in advance the percentage of his pickings necessary to propitiate his judges, if he should be prosecuted. Clodius, the enemy of Cicero, committed an infamous crime in the house of Cæsar. Yet thanks to the "influence" of Crassus, the millionnaire, he was acquitted of a charge which the jury admitted in private was amply proved.

Every stable government must at least maintain law and order. Outbreaks of mob violence must be checked and punished, if not prevented. In almost every part of America, all social elements, except the worst, cry out against such excesses; and public sentiment reacts upon the authorities if they have been slack. In Rome, mob rule became a regular engine of government. Political opponents were assassinated under the most brutal circumstances. The murderers were either applauded, or received only nominal punishments. Clodius drove his opponents from the assembly-places with armed gladiators; and then his underlings, acting for the whole citizen body of Italy, enacted laws that were never set aside as unconstitutional. Clodius and his personal foe Milo, with their partisans, fought for days in the streets, and were stopped by exhaustion, not by coercion.

A CORRUPT ARISTOCRACY

It must be admitted that even the worst American politicians are men of ability. They have risen to power not usually through birth or inherited wealth, but because they are born leaders and organizers. Their parties cast them away when they cease to be useful. Now Rome was governed by an oligarchy to which the passport was not ability but simply birth and riches. Nominally controlled by the Assembly, the real government lay in the "noble" families centred at Rome. The average Italian had great reverence for high lineage, and readily elected to the magistracies a certain limited set of aristocrats. These in the best age were indeed a race of born generals, statesmen, and diplomats. But when between 200 and 50 B.C. this close aristocracy had gained a settled grip on the government, which only a Cæsar could loose, the "nobility" became the hot-bed of all venality, selfishness, and violence. To prevent a non-noble from reaching high office they hesitated at few crimes. They saw with complacency the middle classes of Italy perishing. Did not the catastrophe enable them to swell their estates for a trifle? They declaimed noisily of "liberty," well understanding that to them "liberty" was a commodity reserved for themselves alone. Using their official positions to amass huge properties (often dissipated, in turn, in most vapid pleasure), they met with a guffaw any suggestion that Providence had not singled out their coterie to inherit all the blessings of the earth. Unrestrained by a written constitution; indulging in "jobbery" over tax-, road-, and building-contracts, unparalleled in present conditions, their corruption was equalled only by their utter stupidity. And at last Cæsar destroyed an hereditary oligarchy of which no parallel can be conceived in America.

Rome, then, had a government unfitted for ruling anything but a small town; and this itself was enough to pull down the Republic with a crash; while in America, thanks to the representative system, three million square miles can be represented and controlled at a single building in Washington. Rome in Cæsar's age because of slavery had practically lost her strong middle class, and this class is, and is likely to continue to be, the main bulwark of America. Romans lacked the sense of political responsibility and the love of law and order in so marked a degree that the shortcomings of Americans in these respects seem slight. Rome was controlled by a single hereditary oligarchy, far worse than our basest "rings," and without even those high qualities which give our corruptionists their power. By these causes the Roman Republic fell. Now none of these had any relation to the control of provinces. They were all internal, and rose from conditions that have not the slightest reference to any policy of the United States in crushing the Tagalog insurgents.

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A SLEEPY TRIO (Young Baltimore Orioles).

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A REVOLUTION IN NATURE PICTURES[1]

FROM DRAWINGS OF STUFFED BIRDS TO PHOTOGRAPHS OF WILD ONES, THEIR NESTS AND THEIR YOUNG — NEW REVELATIONS OF BIRD AND ANIMAL LIFE — INFINITE PATIENCE REQUIRED — A DAY'S WORK TO GET A WOODCHUCK'S PORTRAIT

BY

A. RADCLYFFE DUGMORE

AUTHOR OF "BIRD HOMES"



READY FOR LUNCH.

WHILE book-illustrating has changed continually since printing was first discovered, the greatest improvement has been made in pictures of birds and animals. It is largely to the camera that we owe this great improvement. The accompanying illustration of a stormy petrel is a somewhat grotesque but yet a good example of the earlier work of the ornithological artist. It is reproduced from "The Natural History of Birds" by Count de Buffon, printed in England in 1793. Until quite recently only drawings were used for illustrations, and with subjects such as birds, "the personal equation" played so prominent a part that one felt a certain sense of doubt as to the accuracy even of fairly good drawings.

For my own part I had never been satisfied with drawings of birds; and therefore,



THE OLD METHOD OF BIRD ILLUSTRATION.
[From a Standard Work of Natural History]

[1] It is hardly necessary to tell any one who looks at Mr. Dugmore's pictures reproduced here that they are all photographed from live birds. Many are wild birds taken in the woods with "snap shots," by hard work and good luck, as explained by the author.

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EXPECTATION.

giving up the pencil, I followed in the footsteps of those who were experimenting with bird photography. All my earlier attempts were with mounted specimens, at first without any accessories. But the photographs seemed hard and unlifelike. Then I tried placing the mounted bird in natural surroundings, either out of doors, or beneath a skylight. The pictures were fairly satisfactory, but still there was no disguising the fact that the bird was mounted. The eyes, and usually the legs, told the story. The pictures were unsympathetic; it was as though one had photographed the wax model of a friend. The likeness was there, but the *life* was lacking, and there was another objection: although to the casual observer the specimen may appear well mounted, how rarely is shown the characteristic pose so subtle and delicate in its infinite variety! But few taxidermists are naturalists; and, without endless study of living birds, how can any one expect to know the attitudes assumed by the different species? The human eye itself is scarcely quick enough to take note of these things, and it is to the camera that we must turn, and use it as eye, notebook, and pencil. It was the realization of this fact that led me finally to try the fascinating but difficult task of photographing the living bird.



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NUMBER THREE BECOMES ANXIOUS.
[Three successive snap-shots of a wild Indigo-bird feeding her young with grasshoppers on a locust tree.]



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ONE AT A TIME.

To begin with, only nestlings were my models, and I was delighted with the results — no glass eyes nor dried-up legs to mar the picture, but expressions as varied as they were beautiful, and positions entirely different from those seen in mounted specimens. These successes led me, of course, to attempt photographing the adult bird, and I made many experiments with tame birds. It was necessary to have a place arranged so that there might be abundant light; and to avoid sameness in the arrangement of the lighting, the contrivance must be movable. I made a wooden plate form (supported on two light wooden horses) about six feet long, and covered it with mosquito netting stretched on a light framework. The background was of

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A WHITE-FOOTED MOUSE AND YOUNG (about life size).

[While out for a walk with a friend, the author came across this interesting group. The frightened mother instantly disappeared, and could not be found after the most careful search; only after reaching home did Mr. Dugmore's companion find the poor little creature—*in his pocket!* Fearing lest the young ones would die, the author ran back two miles with the old mouse in his hand, and managed just before dusk to secure this picture of the first meeting of the reunited family.]

wood to which could be attached paper or cloth of any desired shade. The camera could be moved backward or forward, and secured with a tripod screw. Into this portable cage the bird was to be put; and, as there was only one perch,—usually a stick or small branch of convenient shape and size, —I fondly imagined that the bird would sit pretty nearly where I wished. But I was doomed to disappointment. When I put the bird in, any place and every place suited him better than the perch so carefully arranged for his special comfort. When a bird, no matter how tame he may be, is placed amid new and unusual surroundings, he is at first greatly frightened, and therefore quite unmanageable. It usually requires some time to prove to him that the new cage will not harm him. So I found my cage not altogether a success; but by patience I managed to obtain some very satisfactory photographs.

THE SPORT OF PHOTOGRAPHING WILD BIRDS

It was not long before I was led to attempt the task of photographing the adult bird in its wild state and in its natural surroundings. It was then I began to appreciate the fascination of the work. Looked at from any one of several standpoints the photographing of wild birds will be found equally satisfactory. As a sport it should take a high place, for undoubtedly the skill as well as the perseverance and the instinct of the hunter is a necessary requirement; and a successful shot with the camera is far more difficult to obtain than a correspondingly fortunate (on one side only) shot from a gun. Then, too, the accomplishment of one's desire leaves behind it

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ANXIOUS FOR HIS TURN.

[The little field-sparrows in this picture have been away from the nest only a few hours. The mother bird has brought them a huge grasshopper, and the wild flapping of wings by which the hungry youngster tries to keep his balance is amusingly indicated by the camera, as is also the vigorous protest of his less fortunate brother.]

no disagreeable taste to mar one's pleasure. What true sportsman is there (and I speak neither of pot-hunters nor "game hogs") who, hearing the death bleat of a deer, does not at heart wish his shot had miscarried? Then, as a means of really becoming acquainted with birds, the camera is without an equal; for to be even a moderately successful bird-photographer one must have an intimate knowledge of the subject; and the camera, in teaching us to know the birds, must of necessity stimulate our affection for these useful and defenceless creatures. As a recorder of facts it is of great scientific value, for it cannot lie, and it records in an unmistakable form every detail presented, whether it be the daily growth of a nestling or the exquisite detail of the bird's nest.



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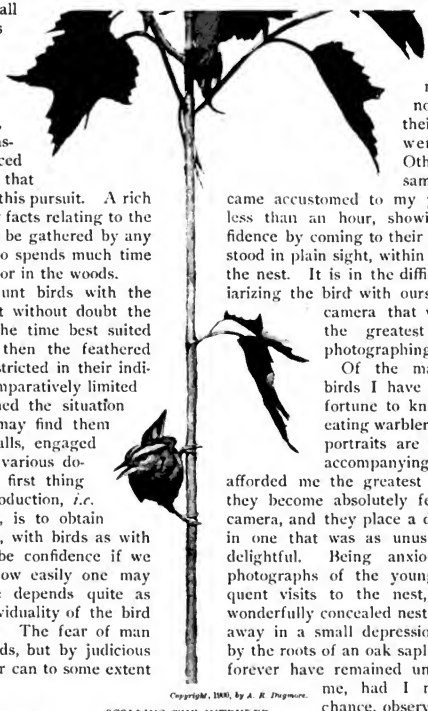
A WOODCOCK ON HER NEST.

[The protective coloring of the bird is admirably shown — even in this black and white picture. Even the bill is thrust under a stick, so that it looks like the surrounding dried twigs and grasses.]

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It is, however, to the keen pleasure that may be derived from this new sport that I would particularly call attention. Not only is there the delight in overcoming difficulties (and they will be found both numerous and varied), but there is the pleasure of being placed among surroundings that are inseparable from this pursuit. A rich harvest of interesting facts relating to the birds' home life may be gathered by any observing person who spends much time along the hedgerows or in the woods.

He who would hunt birds with the camera will find that without doubt the breeding season is the time best suited to his purpose, for then the feathered housekeepers are restricted in their individual range to a comparatively limited area. Having learned the situation of their house, he may find them at home when he calls, engaged in attending to their various domestic duties. The first thing to do after the introduction, *i.e.* learning their name, is to obtain their confidence, and, with birds as with people, there must be confidence if we wish friendship. How easily one may gain this confidence depends quite as much upon the individuality of the bird as upon the species. The fear of man is inherent in all birds, but by judicious management this fear can to some extent be allayed.



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SCOLDING THE INTRUDER.

[A wild worm-eating warbler, taken as she protests against the author's proximity to her young.]

WINNING THE CONFIDENCE OF WILD BIRDS

A great many instances have come before my notice of the change in a bird's behavior, from extreme fear and distrust to a degree of confidence which, to the inexperienced, seems almost inconceivable. The power to tame birds or animals is thought to belong peculiarly to certain persons. This may or may not be true, but from my own observations I am inclined to believe that tameness is a quality rather of the natural disposition of the individual, bird, or animal. With some birds I have spent days in trying to convince them that I intended no harm; yet they placed not the slightest confidence in me, and would not even feed their young if I were in sight. Others of the same species became accustomed to my presence after less than an hour, showing their confidence by coming to their young while I stood in plain sight, within a few feet of the nest. It is in the difficulty of familiarizing the bird with ourselves and the camera that we experience the greatest obstacle to photographing them.

Of the many delightful birds I have had the good fortune to know, the worm-eating warbler family, whose portraits are shown in the accompanying pictures, have afforded me the greatest pleasure; for they become absolutely fearless of the camera, and they place a degree of trust in one that was as unusual as it was delightful. Being anxious to secure photographs of the young, I paid frequent visits to the nest, and what a wonderfully concealed nest it was, tucked away in a small depression and hidden by the roots of an oak sapling. It would forever have remained undiscovered by me, had I not, by lucky chance, observed one of the parent birds visiting it.

Only at first did the owners object to my intruding, and by various methods did they try to coax me away from their home. First one, and then the other, would feign broken wings, and half rolling, half scrambling, they would make their way down the steep hillside, in the hope of luring me away. Then, finding that I was not to be taken in even by such an artful device, they endeavored to accomplish their object by scolding at me. In less than two hours they quieted down and simply

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A PAIR OF WOODCHUCKS AT THE ENTRANCE TO THEIR BURROW.

[This photograph — from life, as are all the others in this article — represents a hard day's work in the Adirondacks — and a good deal of luck even at that. The size of the animals indicates the closeness of the camera, which was concealed in the bushes, not more than six feet away.]

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A DISREPUTABLE PAIR.
[Screech-owls, photographed from life.]

looked on in silence. The next time I visited the nest they made no objection, and I imagined they recognized me, and realized that I meant no harm, either to themselves or to their young, for these had hatched since my last visit. Day by day I came to watch the little fellows, and they grew rapidly, as all young birds do. Finally they were ready to make their first venture into the great world



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A WILD PORCUPINE.
[Photographed in the Adirondacks.]

that, should no accident befall them, was to be their feeding ground for many years to come.

SOME EXCITING EXPERIENCES

As I looked into the nest the family of fledglings scrambled out, as though they had been scattered by some invisible hand, so nearly simultaneous was their action, and in less time than it takes to tell it, each little mite of down and rust-colored feathers was hidden among the dead, crackling leaves with which the ground was strewn. Though I had tried my best to watch where each bird



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SCREECH-OWLS.

concealed itself, it was some time before I collected them all preparatory to photographing them. Of course the parents were greatly excited, — birds always are when their young first leave the nest, — and when they saw the entire brood captured by one whom they had considered a friend, they seemed to regret having placed so much confidence in me. But only for a very short time did their doubts continue. As soon as I placed the youngsters on a suitable perch, they both ceased to utter that lisping note of anxious protestation, and to show that they no longer feared me they hopped about *on the camera* while I was arranging it.

When young birds (before they can fly) are placed on a perch, they invariably fall off almost as fast as they are put on, and there is usually a bad one in the lot, who positively

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refuses to sit anywhere he may be placed. Not only does he fall off, but if possible, he grabs one or two of his small companions, and down they go together. These young warblers were no exception, and off they went, one after another. The bad one proved to be very bad indeed, and he is shown in



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CEDAR-BIRD EATING WILD CHERRIES.

[This gourmand, of course a wild bird, was caught just as he had picked a luscious cherry, and was about to toss it in the air preparatory to swallowing it.]

only two of the many photographs I made of the family.

While these pictures were being taken, one of the parent birds stayed near by to watch over her youngsters, while the other went off in search of food, for which they called continually, and though I was not more than three or four feet distant, she fed them without troubling herself at all about my presence. Once she even perched on my hat, and used the camera as a half-way house, resting on it each time she went back and forth to supply the fledglings with food. Unfortunately the light was not very good for instantaneous photography, but such an opportunity for securing pictures of this comparatively rare bird was not to be missed, so I made many exposures on her and her young, with fair results.

From a photographic standpoint they are of course faulty, but the subject is sufficiently interesting to warrant one's overlooking these shortcomings. The light had grown so weak by the time I had made about fifteen exposures, that I was forced to abandon any further attempts with the camera for that day. Sitting down on the ground, I placed the young warblers on my lap to examine them carefully. Imagine my surprise when both the parent birds came on my knee, first without, and then with food for the youngsters. It was quite a novel sensation, and one that was more than enjoyable. It was positively thrilling.

Knowing from past experience how sceptical people are when told of anything that they themselves have not seen, I made up my mind then and there, to pay my warbler friends another visit early the following day, and photograph the old one on my hand. The day was fine, and I was fortunate enough to find one of the young ones, who could now fly a little, perched on the low branch of a small bush. One of the old birds was hunting busily for insects. Seeing me pick up her baby, she flew toward me, but did not object in the least to my taking temporary possession of it. So I felt sure that she recognized her friend of the previous day. A few moments sufficed to

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PRAIRIE DOGS.

[These very shy little animals were photographed at the Zoölogical Park, Washington, after repeated trials and the exercise of infinite patience on the part of Mr. Dugmore. They have a way of disappearing at the least motion which is eminently discouraging to their would-be portrait-makers.]



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HESITATION.

[Photographed at the National Zoölogical Park, Washington.]

arrange the camera in a place where the light was bright, and when all was ready to my satisfaction, I took the little fellow, who had been quietly sleeping in the warm sunlight, and set him on my finger.

Soon he called lustily for food, and it was strange to see how quickly his parent heard and understood. In a minute or two she came hurrying along, carrying in her beak a daddy-long-legs, and, after pausing on the camera to see that all was right, she flew *on my hand*, and calmly fed her hungry little one. With my disengaged



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READY TO DISAPPEAR.

[Photographed at the National Zoological Park, Washington.]

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hand I pressed the bulb, and a picture was secured.

The daddy-long-legs served only to whet the appetite of my small friend, who cried out eagerly for more. Again the industrious provider went off in search of other and larger insects. She was away for some time, but what she brought back fully compensated for the long wait — of perhaps four minutes. It was nothing more nor less than a huge brown grasshopper, nearly as long as the small bird himself. Again was the camera used as a halting-place, and again did she fly on my hand. Hungry though the little fellow may have been, he was unable to swallow so large a mouthful, and he dropped the grasshopper into my partly closed hand. Unfortunately I had just pressed the bulb and was therefore unable to take a photograph of the interesting proceeding that followed.



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BRINGING HOME PROVISIONS
[Female Indigo-bird, on stalk of Queen's lace.]

Quite naturally the mother bird was anxious that so bountiful a supply of food should not be wasted, and she stood on my thumb and bending down, so that her head was *inside* my hand, extricated the prize. Then she proceeded to break it into pieces of suitable size, and with these she fed her quivering and impatient little offspring. During the morning I secured a few more photographs of these interesting birds, and then returning the youngster to the bush whence I had taken him, I left the pair in possession of their hillside estate.

SOME INTERESTING DISAPPOINTMENTS

I then went to pay a visit to an oven-bird whose beautiful dome-shaped nest was hidden among the dead leaves in the woods near by. She was at home when I called, so I decided to photograph her. Unfortunately the roof of the arched nest cut off the light so that under existing circumstances a good picture could scarcely be hoped for. A small looking-glass, however, served to alter things, by throwing the sunlight into the nest, so that only a very short exposure was necessary.

My mind was fully made up to make the further acquaintance of this little thrush-like warbler after the arrival of her brood; for it is then that one can really know a bird. The day arrived, and the four little trembling pink bodies had taken the place of the speckled eggs. They were too small to photograph then, so I left them for two days and then made one photograph, thinking that later on, as they grew stronger, I should be able to

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photograph them at different stages of their growth. But this was not to be. As I approached the domed nursery I was greeted by the pitiful complaining note of the pair of oven-birds. That was not the way in which they usually greeted me. I feared the worst, and my fears were realized. In place of the nest, there was only a tangled and shattered heap of weed-stems and dry leaves — the materials that but a few hours before had constituted a beautiful example of bird architecture. In the soft earth, within thirty inches of the ruins, was the print of a cat's foot. Sick at heart, I left the scene of misery and desolation, vowing an awful vengeance against cats in general.

PHOTOGRAPHING NESTS AND NESTLINGS

To photograph the nest containing eggs is usually a comparatively easy matter, as a long exposure may be given. The best results are obtained when a gray day is chosen, as the light is softer and more diffused, so that all the details, both of nest and eggs, are clearly shown. A very different task is the photographing of the young in the nest, and the resulting pictures are seldom what one hopes for. The reasons for this are obvious. The young are never quiet even when asleep, owing to their rapid respiration. This precludes a time exposure, and this in turn prevents the use of anything but a large diaphragm; therefore, as the distance from the near edge of the nest to the bird farthest away is several inches, only a small part can be in focus, while the rest is a blurred mass. If the light is sufficiently bright, the best results may be obtained when the nestlings raise their heads for food, as each bird is then more clearly defined, instead of being part of a shapeless, heaving mass. This applies more particularly to the photographing of small birds, as the camera, with a lens of ordinary focal length, has to be placed very near the nest, with the consequent lack of depth of focus that is unfortunately inseparable from such conditions.

To photograph the parent bird sitting is difficult or easy, according to the disposition of the bird, which varies not only with the different species, but with individuals of the same species. Usually the brown thrasher, the wood-thrush, or the cat-bird, will sit close, and allow the camera to be placed within a few feet of them while they are on the nest; but I have seen exceptions, which go to prove that success depends largely



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THE SAME INDIGO BIRD (see facing page) AND ONE OF HER CHILDREN, ON STALK OF BLACK COHOSH.

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upon the peculiar disposition of the bird itself. People think as a rule that, because a bird builds its nest in the immediate vicinity of a house, it is necessarily tamer than one that chooses the quiet seclusion of the woods. This has not been my experience, for the tamest birds I have ever known were those that nested in places comparatively remote from human habitation.

When the fledglings leave their nest, the bird photographer should be on hand, for then it is that he can obtain the best pictures, as the youngsters may be put on any perch that best suits his fancy, and a place where there is sufficient light may be chosen. For the benefit of those who might wish to try their hand at this fascinating branch of photography I give the following suggestions: —

SPECIFIC DIRECTIONS

Select a branch or briar of suitable shape and size — and young birds prefer a fairly thick perch. This should be arranged so that it will not be swayed by the wind, lest the branch move and the birds be out of focus. Bright sunlight is necessary, as the exposure must not exceed one-fiftieth of a second. With such a short exposure the shadows are likely to be lacking in detail, so it is advisable to place beneath the birds a white cloth, and this should be tilted to such an angle that the reflected light shall strike those parts of the birds that are in shadow. If the natural background is not strongly sunlit, it will be an advantage to use a white or light gray cloth as an artificial background, but it should be placed at a reasonable distance from the birds: from four to eight feet will answer. Now place the little fellows on the perch and arrange the camera, remembering — if you wish to photograph the parent bird with her young — to leave sufficient space between the young birds and the edge of the plate, so that no matter on which side the old one comes to feed them, the camera will be in readiness. All that remains to be done is to attach a long rubber tube to the shutter. Then sit down in an inconspicuous place and wait patiently until the old birds have fully convinced



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ROCK BASS.

[Photographed through water — the first successful negative made by the author, after a number of experiments.]

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A BROOD OF WILD CHIPPING SPARROWS.

[Photographed on the author's hand by himself, using an air bulb and long tube. The mother bird is feeding her young, and the other parent flew just as the exposure was made, his tail being shown at the top of the cuff.]

themselves that no harm is intended. Then they will venture near the camera and feed their hungry young.

Any one who uses the camera as a means of studying bird-life will undoubtedly be surprised to find how marked is the individuality of birds. Not by casual observation does one discover this, but in the intimacy with the birds that one acquires when one watches for hours at a time the bird upon whose nest or young one may happen to have the instrument focussed.

A camera, to be rigid and sufficiently durable to stand several seasons of field work, must be fairly heavy, though not of necessity large. A sufficient size for most work is 5 × 7 inches, while some even prefer one as small as 4 × 5. This latter is correct in size and proportion for those who wish to have lantern slides made from their negatives, and is certainly far better adapted to all whose enthusiasm is limited, and who do not wish to overburden themselves.

For my own part I use the 5 × 7 almost exclusively, and frequently I wish it were larger, particularly when the subject to be photographed is the parent bird feeding her young after they have left the nest. Place four or five fledglings on a branch, leaving sufficient space on either side to allow the old bird to stand, and reduce all this interesting material down to a five-inch space, and you will realize the advantage of even the extra two inches allowed by the 5 × 7. How many times has it happened to me to have the father or mother bird perch just outside the limits of my 5 × 7 plate, and assume some attitude that I was most anxious to catch; and again how often has the plate through its limited size cut off part of the adult bird. In such cases I long for my larger camera which, on account of its weight, has been left behind.

PHOTOGRAPHING WILD ANIMALS

Turning now from pictures of birds to pictures of animals, we find that, owing to the difficulty of obtaining good photographs, drawings are still used almost exclusively. The field for camera work here is enormous, but unfortunately the difficulties are so numerous and overwhelming that good results are obtainable only after almost endless labor, and but few can give the necessary time. Of course this refers to animals in their wild state, but there is another field that has been as yet only lightly touched, and that is pho-

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tographing animals that are in captivity. This is a task that is comparatively easy, but if really good pictures are desired, it will not be found quite as simple as one might believe.



Copyright, 1900, by A. R. Dugmore.

THE AUTHOR PHOTOGRAPHING A WILD BIRD ON HIS HAND.

[This worm-eating warbler was a wild bird which Mr. Dugmore in a few days got so used to his presence that she would bring her young food while on his hand. At the proper moment the bulb of the rubber tube running to the camera was pressed with the left hand.]

The three essential things to be considered are: first, the pose of the animal. This is extremely important, as a position should be chosen that is characteristic of the species. Secondly, the arrangement of the surroundings. A bad foreground will surely ruin a picture; so also will the introduction of a fence or any similar object in the background; and the greatest attention should be given to the composition as a whole. Thirdly, the light. This is important, for it will make or mar the picture. When a very short exposure is given, the fewer shadows there are, the better will be the result; but in cases where an ample exposure is possible, the light may be arranged entirely with regard to the pictorial effect. It will be readily seen that the mere *snapshot* has no more place here than it has in live-bird photography. A good picture, whether made with a camera or the pencil, is the result of study and careful arrangement, and only in very rare cases is it the result of chance. The several photographs of prairie-dogs shown in these pages were made in the National Zoölogical Park (Washington), but, so far as the backgrounds and surroundings are concerned, they might well have been taken on the great prairies of the West.

Up to the present time my experience in photographing wild animals in their native haunts has been very limited. The animal to which I have devoted the greatest time is the Canadian porcupine. For nearly two weeks I stayed in the Adirondacks, where they are abundant, and during that time I made photographs of these prickly fellows in nearly every possible position, — on the ground, in trees, and in the water.

The accompanying photograph of the woodchucks is a fairly lucky shot. Unfortunately the animals' feet are nearly hidden by the light white sand excavated from the burrows; but one must overlook such small defects in pictures that are so difficult to obtain. This photograph was taken while I was looking for porcupines in the Adirondacks.

The picture of Mrs. Mouse (white footed) and her family is another of the lucky shots — so few and far between.

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OUR PLACE AMONG THE NATIONS

THE CHANGE FROM EASY-GOING DIPLOMATIC METHODS TO INTERNATIONAL LEADERSHIP — MR. OLNEY'S VIGOR AND MR. HAY'S TRIUMPHS — "THE TIME IS PAST FOR MAKING TREATIES; THE TIME IS COME FOR PROMULGATING POLICIES"

SINCE the formation of our government the highest ranking officer in the executive, next to the President, has been the Secretary of State. His department was the first one created, and it was intended that the dignity of his duties should place him above his colleagues; for, besides being the Secretary of foreign affairs, he was charged with certain domestic state functions, such as the promulgation of the laws and the keeping of the great seal. He sits at the President's right hand at the cabinet table, and six Secretaries of State have afterwards sat in the President's chair itself. Yet, to fill this office respectably has not always been a task of great difficulty; for there have been periods in our history when a dignified treatment, upon well-established lines, of questions of long standing has been almost all that was required. The most conservative of all the government offices is the State Department. It is steeped in tradition and precedent, and when it is permitted to follow its own tendency, it makes no mistakes, never commits itself, and moves forward hardly at all.

Till very recently it seemed to be sinking deeper and deeper into a rut. Each succeeding Secretary inherited the questions that his predecessor had dealt with, and passed them on to his successor, having enriched them by an additional mass of stately diplomatic literature, the object being, apparently, not so much to settle the questions, as to leave on record creditable arguments in favor of their settlement. Some years ago a distinguished Secretary of the Treasury, now dead, said to me, in speaking of the Secretary of State, "Why, he hasn't anything to do!" and this was hardly an exaggeration at the time.

EXAMPLES OF OLD-TIME METHODS

A few instances will illustrate the delays of the old diplomacy. Scattered through the correspondence of the Secretaries of State with the Ministers of Turkey are long, erudite notes on the subject of the translation and meaning of that article of our treaty with Turkey which relates to the extraterritorial rights of Americans. The treaty was signed in 1830, and since then the two governments have been unable to come to an agreement as to its real meaning.

Again, the Samoan question had its origin in 1872, became a subject of discussion a few years later, and reached a climax fifteen years afterwards, when it was temporarily settled by the Berlin Act of 1889. It soon broke out again and gave promise of being a perennial international nuisance, until Secretary Hay made it a thing of the past by the Convention of December 2, 1899, between the United States, Germany, and Great Britain. This action made future international friction in the government of the Islands impossible by repealing the joint responsibility and making each power wholly responsible for the government of certain islands.

The Mora claim had been pending twenty-five years, and Antonio Maximo Mora, the chief beneficiary, was dead, when Mr. Olney compelled Spain to make the payment which it had promised years before.

THE STRONGEST PAPER OF OUR DAY

As a controversy between Venezuela and Great Britain the boundary question began in 1814; the United States declared its interest in it in 1881, and instructed our Minister to Great Britain to lend his "good offices" to the Venezuelan envoy in 1884. A number of well-worded, well-meant, nerveless, and ineffective instructions followed in the intervening years, while Great Britain steadily extended her claims and colonies in the disputed territory. On July 20, 1895, fourteen years after the subject had been taken up by

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RICHARD OLNEY.

FROM THE PORTRAIT BY HUBERT VOS IN THE DEPARTMENT OF STATE AT WASHINGTON.

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the State Department, Secretary Olney sent his famous instruction to Mr. Bayard. It struck a note such as had not been heard from an American Secretary of State since the days of Seward. The narrow historical exposition of the Monroe Doctrine which a distinguished international law scholar had written and which Judge Gresham had regarded as so excellent, was tossed aside, and in its place was substituted the strongest state paper of our day in support of the real Monroe Doctrine as "the accepted public law of this country ever since its promulgation." This paper was quickly followed by others not less powerful, and the result was a complete victory for the Olney contention. When Great Britain agreed to arbitrate the question, the right of the United States to insist upon the arbitration was established, and our supremacy in the Western world was placed beyond the probability of subsequent dispute.

What may be called the new American Diplomacy really began with Mr. Olney, for he showed that he thought our increasing importance and world-wide interests demanded that we make our voice heard in the council of nations, and that we could not, in justice to ourselves, continue our policy of international isolation. His administration marked the end of our easy-going, seclusive conservatism.

Yet there was a period immediately succeeding Mr. Olney's retirement, when the State Department was practically a headless institution, for Mr. Sherman performed none of the important functions of his office, and Judge Day, who acted for him and then succeeded him, was without experience or previously acquired knowledge of the duties he was called upon to perform. He was, consequently, dependent to a great extent upon the permanent staff of the Department for guidance in conducting the negotiations before and during the Spanish war.

MR. HAY'S TRAINING AND CHARACTERISTICS

When Judge Day retired from an office which was foreign to his tastes, and which he had unwillingly consented to fill for a brief period only, all thoughts of political expediency in selecting his successor disappeared before the international difficulties confronting us, and the President selected as Judge Day's successor a man who had no political following, who represented no votes, for he lives in the District of Columbia, who had never run for an office, and who had never sought favors from the politicians. Mr. Hay had been in the Diplomatic service in four different countries; he had served as Assistant Secretary of State, and he was a scholar and an author of distinction. He was born in 1838, but has the movements, appearance, and manner of speech of a young man. He likes the society of young men, because he is in touch with them, and not as an old man who craves an audience. His public speeches are models of felicitous thought and expression, but in private life he does not rehearse or repeat his speeches, as public men in Washington are so apt to do. He is utterly without self-consciousness, and is never ponderous. He knows foreign tongues and foreigners, and he reads everything. In his long residence in Washington his associates have been men from all parts of the country. He is thus entirely national in his feelings, without local prejudices or predilections. In private social life he forms one of a circle in Washington, which in its personnel is partly official, partly diplomatic, partly literary, and wholly unprovincial. He has fortunately been removed from the necessity of giving attention to many of the details of life, and he does not care for them.

In Secretary Hay, in fact, this country has at the head of the State Department the most thoroughly trained diplomat that has ever occupied the position. It may be said of him that his whole life has been a schooling for the duties of the place.

SECRETARY TO LINCOLN

Immediately upon leaving college, in 1858, where he had already shown evidence of brilliant intellectual and literary gifts, he entered the law office of Abraham Lincoln, in Springfield, Illinois, and three years later was admitted to the bar. He never practised his profession, for his admission was simultaneous with the accession of Lincoln to the Presidency, and at Lincoln's urgent request he accompanied him to Washington as one of his private secretaries on the memorable journey which began with that touching

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farewell speech to friends and neighbors from the platform of the railway car in Springfield, and ended, after many vicissitudes, in Washington. From that moment till Lincoln's death, Mr. Hay was in constant and intimate association with the President, living at the White House and acting in all things as his confidential agent. He was also his adjutant and aide-de-camp, and served for some time under Generals Hunter and Gillmore, with the rank of major and adjutant general. He was brevetted lieutenant and lieutenant-colonel, thus coming legitimately by the title of colonel, by which he was known for many years.

DIPLOMATIC SERVICE AND LITERARY WORK

After the death of Lincoln he was made Secretary of Legation at Paris, and remained there till 1867, when he became chargé d'affaires at Vienna. After holding this post for a year he resigned and returned to the United States. He was sent almost immediately to Madrid as Secretary of Legation, where he remained till 1870, gathering during this sojourn materials for his later book, "Castilian Days," one of the most delightful studies of Spanish life, politics, art, and tradition that we have.

In this service at many foreign courts, his natural aptitude for language and his love of literature gave him opportunities which he improved to the utmost. When he returned to this country in 1870, he not only spoke the chief modern languages of the world fluently, but he had acquired a knowledge of foreign politics and foreign public men which few of his contemporaries possessed. He served the *New York Tribune* for a time as an editorial writer, devoting himself mainly to foreign topics, literary and political, and won from Horace Greeley the tribute of being the most brilliant writer that had ever entered the office. But while he had gifts rarely equalled in the profession, he did not like journalism, and could not be induced to take more than a passing interest in it. During the few years of his service on the *Tribune* he published, mainly in its columns, his "Pike Country Ballads," 'Banty Tim,' 'Jim Bludso,' 'Little Breeches,' and 'The Mystery of Gilgal.' These made their appearance soon after Bret Harte's 'Heathen Chinee' started on its career of immortality, and quite rivalled it in popularity. Colonel Hay long since lost whatever pride of authorship he ever had in them and is wont to express regret that one of them, at least, 'Little Breeches,' ever saw the light.

After about five years of service on the *Tribune*, he married a daughter of the late Amasa Stone of Cleveland and went to that city to live. He devoted himself mainly to literary work, and occasionally took part in politics, writing and speaking in presidential campaigns. In 1879 he returned once more to what seems to have been his foreordained calling, diplomacy, by accepting an offer from President Hayes to become First Assistant Secretary of State under Mr. Evarts. He held this position till the end of the Hayes administration in March, 1881. He then returned for a brief period to journalism, yielding to a request from Whitelaw Reid, editor of the *Tribune*, that he take charge of that journal during the latter's absence in Europe. He conducted it through the trying period of Garfield's assassination and death, showing the same qualities that he has exhibited in every position he has held, — steadiness, coolness, and the calm judgment which comes from experience.

BIOGRAPHER OF LINCOLN

For many years, in collaboration with another of Lincoln's secretaries, Colonel Hay had been collecting material for a life of Lincoln that should be the standard record of that great career. When he returned to Cleveland in the fall of 1881, he and Mr. Nicolay bent themselves to this task, and the publication of the work began as a serial in the *Century Magazine* in 1887. It was subsequently published in ten volumes, and ranks to-day as the most complete and authoritative record of Lincoln and his times. The student of history must go to it for the final word on most questions pertaining to that epoch, for it contains a vast fund of documentary and other evidence, much of it accessible only to the authors, and the greater part of it now obtainable nowhere else. There have been more intimate studies of Lincoln published, but no more comprehensive, dignified, or inspiring record of his inspiring career.

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One other literary achievement remains to be added to Colonel Hay's record; that is, if rumor speaks the truth. An anonymous novel, entitled "The Breadwinners," published in 1883, and widely read, has always been believed, by people whose judgment in the matter is entitled to most weight, to have been written by him.

UNDER THE McKINLEY ADMINISTRATION

With the election of McKinley to the Presidency, the posts for which Colonel Hay's life had been a preparation were one after another opened to him. In March, 1897, President McKinley appointed him Minister to England, and the selection was declared by both press and public, without distinction of party, to be most fit. His welcome in London, where his literary achievements had made him well and favorably known, was most cordial, and his success was instant and great.

A delightful conversationalist, an eloquent and graceful speaker, an accomplished man of the world as well as an accomplished man of letters, he was preëminently the type of man that intellectual London has always delighted to honor. He was in England as our Minister for only about a year, yet during that period he accomplished more to bring us into friendly relations with the mother country than almost any of his predecessors had been able to do. What he has done in the State Department, since the President recalled him and placed him at the head of it in August, 1898, is in line with what he did in London, and needs only to be examined to have its great usefulness to the nation understood.

Some of our Secretaries of State have bent their energies to performing duties which may properly fall to the chief clerk of the State Department, but he is not of this class; nor does he, as public characters sometimes do, put himself in the hands of obsequious satellites and permit them to act for him. He attends personally to such things as concern himself. Taking his place as Secretary, he soon showed that he was of the Olney school, and that the office meant to him something more than the creation of state papers.

Yet his first achievement failed of consummation most discouragingly. On February 5, 1900, the President sent to the Senate "A Convention between the United States and Great Britain to facilitate the Construction of a Ship Canal to connect the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans, and to remove any Objection which might arise out of the Convention commonly called the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty." The treaty meant simply that the United States might build the Nicaragua Canal and control it, provided it should be maintained as a neutral water highway and should not be fortified. It was intended thus to dispose of a question over which Secretaries of State had shed gallons of ink for more than fifty years. The treaty was, however, unpopular from the start, for a large number of people have come to believe that the Nicaragua Canal, if it is built, must be an American canal as much as the Chesapeake and Ohio is now.

THE SENATORIAL GRAVEYARD OF TREATIES

Moreover, the Senate is a veritable graveyard for treaties. There the elaborate fisheries treaty, which Mr. Bayard and Joseph Chamberlain negotiated, met its fate; there Mr. Olney's great arbitration treaty with Great Britain was buried, and there Mr. Kasson's reciprocity treaties lie in a heap. As senators have a purely domestic accountability, they are apt to apply purely domestic standards to international measures. The treatment that the Hay-Pauncefote treaty received reflected, mainly, the adverse domestic criticism, and not the broader vision of international obligation. This is not the place to discuss the canal question, a subject so intricate and upon which so many diverse opinions are held, but it is worth while to quote the simple directness of the language of the first article of the treaty which Secretary Clayton signed and the Senate agreed to fifty years ago: —

"Article 1. The Governments of the United States and Great Britain hereby declare that neither the one nor the other will ever obtain or maintain for itself an exclusive control over the said ship-canal," etc.

Simultaneously with the negotiations resulting in the treaty which has not succeeded Secretary Hay conducted more extensive negotiations, the success of which did not depend upon the Senate.

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The first European powers to extort "spheres of influence" from the Chinese government were Germany and Russia, followed closely by France and Great Britain. A "sphere of influence" means that Chinese administration within a certain area is under an ill-defined supervision by a foreign power, which is also conceded permission to develop the country and receives some territorial privileges. Thirteen of the eighteen provinces of China are thus partitioned off. Of course, this tentative and partial appropriation of Chinese territory was a development which the United States could not view without concern. We have an enormous and increasing trade with China and treaties and agreements with the government to protect our interests. European trade interests are in rivalry with ours and would naturally be hostile to us in the new spheres. If we were in truth a world-power, now was the time to show it.

MR. HAY'S GREAT FEAT OF DIPLOMACY

In September, 1899, the Secretary of State instructed our ambassadors at London, Berlin, St. Petersburg, and Paris to propose that each of these governments make a declaration in favor of the "open door" policy in China. They were invited to give assurances: first, that there would be no interference with any treaty port or vested interest within any "sphere of influence"; second, that the existing Chinese customs tariff would be continued without discrimination and administered by Chinese officials; third, that there would be no discrimination in harbor dues and railroad rates. Italy, as an aspirant for a "sphere of influence," was afterwards included in the negotiations, and Japan, also, as a vitally interested power.

When Mr. Choate made his proposition to Lord Salisbury he stated that it must not be understood as implying "any recognition of the exclusive rights of any power within, or control over, any portion of the Chinese Empire under such agreements" as had resulted in the acquisition of the "spheres of influence." He also announced that the United States desired to see the Imperial Government strengthened and the integrity of the Chinese Empire preserved.

In March, 1900, six months after the negotiations began, all the governments approached had pledged themselves to the "open door" policy. No treaties were exchanged, but deliberate promises were asked and given. Their binding force depends upon international public opinion, and the government that would break a promise thus publicly recorded would incur as great odium as would follow the violation of a treaty itself.

It was a feat of diplomacy, remarkable for the wisdom and originality of its conception, for the skill and rapidity with which it was executed, and for its far-reaching results. Here was a shining example of the new American diplomacy, and here was the proof, if proof was wanted, that in the council of nations America now spoke as one of the great powers of the world.

THE NATURE OF THE NEW DIPLOMACY

In this accomplishment the United States acted alone, but how far the new diplomacy will do so, must depend upon circumstances and our own interests. Under the old diplomacy the dread of foreign alliances was such that even temporary coöperation with another power was studiously avoided. The new policy is bolder and has shown that it will not shrink from combining its strength when thereby we may gain what single-handed we might lose. This policy involves no alliances, nor need the most timid and credulous suspect what in the nature of things cannot take place. The President and Secretary of State would be powerless to form an alliance of any kind with a foreign government without the Senate's consent.

It was a remarkable proceeding, therefore, of Congress at the last session to request the executive for information concerning the existence of an alliance between this government and that of Great Britain. Who could have formed it, and what intelligent purpose would it have served? The Secretary of State had been ambassador to England, he had cultivated the friendly relations existing between his country and England as he was bound to do, but when the war in South Africa broke out, he steered a strictly neutral course, as did all the rest of the world, except the Orange Free State.

Many people, through ignorance, believed that our government sided with England,

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because our consuls took temporary charge of English interests in the Transvaal when the English consuls were withdrawn, but this was merely a return for similar services from British consuls in Spanish dominions during our war with Spain, and was in the usual course. It was no more than Mr. Washburne had done in France for German interests during the Franco-Prussian War, and meant no more. The South African situation presented no diplomatic difficulties, until the visit to Washington of the Boer envoys produced a situation which required delicate treatment. If it was a trap set in America to embarrass the administration, it failed, because it was met with perfect frankness and firmness. The envoys were politely received and informed that our government had already volunteered its good offices between the belligerents, but that they had been declined. There was, therefore, nothing more that could be done. The envoys were presented to the President, who received them with consideration, and they were entertained at the house of the Secretary of State. They left Washington without a grievance, unless it was against some of the seeming advocates of their cause who endeavored to use them for a purpose foreign to that of their mission. There can be no doubt that the fair and open course pursued by the administration in the Transvaal war met the approval of public opinion in the United States, and this, after all, is the great support upon which every American policy must rest for strength and endurance; for when public opinion is intelligently formed, it does not change without cause.

OUR NEW POLICY AND ITS NEEDS

Caught in the hurrying events of the past few years public opinion is now hesitating, wondering where the country stands, and uncertain whether it were not better if it had stood still. But the forces that have impelled us forward were the irresistible instincts of our race. The home-market long since ceased to be the limits of our commercial ambition, and Americans refuse to stay in their own country. They are competing for the trade of the world and they are travelling over the face of the earth. The old foreign policy was slow to change to suit the new conditions, but the new policy must foster and protect American interests, and they are now found everywhere.

To perform this duty effectively, it must be supplied with competent agents abroad; for a policy which is well formulated in Washington may be seriously marred by the inexperience, or indiscretion, or ignorance of an agent to whom the execution of part of the programme may fall. The consul, therefore, plays an important part, for he is the protector and representative of our expanding commercial interests abroad. That he is not as useful as he should be, must remain a fact until the present deplorable system by which he is appointed to office shall give place to a regularly organized system of selection, retention, and promotion according to merit.

The same complaint lies against the diplomatic agents of the government, but not with the same force. They are drawn for the most part from the professions where mental activity has distinguished them, and at the more important posts, at any rate, they are not at a permanent disadvantage with their overtrained European associates. The days of elaborate and all-important rules of etiquette are over, and the usefulness of a minister is not hopelessly wrecked if he turns over the wrong corner of his visiting card. The French humorist About defined diplomacy as the art of tying one's cravat, and judged by this standard America's representatives are not always masters; but when there is real work to be done it is more important that the instructions of the administration should be correctly and ably presented than that the notions of fashionable intercourse which idle American travellers have guessed at, should be satisfied.

DIRECTNESS OF AMERICAN METHODS

It was Napoleon who declared that Talleyrand was an adroit diplomatist because he was an adroit liar, and it used to be a common saying that it was the duty of a diplomat to lie for his country; but American diplomacy has never been modelled upon this plan; and if we have at times suffered mortification because of the ignorance our agents have shown of their cravat-tying duties,

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we have, at any rate, been spared the deeper shame that follows a record of mendaciousness. Our path was never a tortuous one even when it was most narrow, but the new American diplomacy must command admiration for its broad straightforwardness.

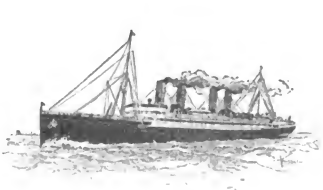
In the recent Chinese crisis Secretary Hay's note of July 3d defining American purposes was an instance. It amounted to an announcement beforehand of a programme, a thing which the old American diplomacy seldom had, and which European diplomacy usually tries to hide. How the programme will be worked out in all its details cannot now be written, for the Chinese situation has presented hitherto unheard-of problems, even if the sequence of events seems not illogical.

OUR COURSE IN CHINA

Close upon the heels of the demands on the Chinese government for the "spheres of interest" followed the "revolution of the palace" at Peking, in September, 1898, and the ascendancy of the anti-foreign Chinese party. The first reactionary decree appeared in November, 1899, and the hostility of the Chinese to the preponderance and avidity of the foreigners grew in intensity, until it culminated in the recent tragic events the true history of which cannot yet be written. No government was prepared to meet this emergency, for the wildest imagination had not conceived that the foreign ministers would be systematically beleaguered in their legations and compelled to do battle for their lives.

Surely not in our day has such an extraordinary demand been made upon the resources of a Secretary of State as this crisis involved. Great deliberation and the careful maturing of plans which usually precede any diplomatic movement were impossible. Immediate announcement of intention was necessary, and every move, however important, must be made on the instant. To have been carried away by indignation, and to have uttered a few hot, hasty words, would have been to endanger and perhaps destroy all hope of success in carrying out a policy upon the success of which hang, to a great extent, our future interests and prestige.

That no foreign office in Europe had a better grasp of the situation than ours was plain. When all the world was feeding upon manufactured horrors and lashing itself into fury over a crime that had not been committed, it was the American Secretary of State who succeeded in checking the cry for blood, by securing a message from our Minister in Peking, announcing that he and his colleagues were alive. The Chinese crisis is not passed as this article is written; on the contrary, the great diplomatic battle has not been fought. What the United States desires has been made plain enough. To change the map of the world is commonly considered to be a demonstration of great power, but it will be an exhibition of greater strength to prevent it from being changed.



THE DEUTSCHLAND,

which crossed the Atlantic in five days, twelve hours, and twenty-eight minutes.

(*See page* 113.)

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NEW CULTURE FOR NEW CONDITIONS

A FUNDAMENTAL CHANGE IN THE CONDITIONS OF THINKING — OUR PRESENT TRAINING INADEQUATE — NEW WINE IN OLD BOTTLES — THE PROPER BASIS FOR A CULTURE THAT SHALL BE ADEQUATE, CATHOLIC, NATIONAL

BY

MARK H. LIDDELL

"NO one puts new wine into old wine-skins, for the new wine will burst the old skins, and both skins and wine be lost. New wine must be put into new skins." A 'little sooth sermon' on this ancient text as it applies to modern culture needs the preaching.

We have listened to much talk recently about the progress of education — Exposition talk, growing out of a general consciousness that a turning point has been reached in the history of the world's thought. But if we shut our ears to the talk and look at the facts, we have no great reason to be proud of our educational achievement. Such a survey of the practical effect of our advancement is by no means encouraging. The past year has brought to light so many ugly features in our social conditions, so much violence which is not the violence of ignorance, and so much lawlessness which is not due to lack of intelligence, that we may well ask ourselves whether it is quite seemly for us to pat ourselves on the back and grandiloquently enumerate manifold achievements in the face of these ugly shadows on our boasted culture.

Is it that education, after all, is not the great panacea for social ill that our fathers thought it? Or is the trouble with the kind of education we are depending upon?

The century began in a glow of enthusiasm for personal liberty that held out hopes almost millennial. The machinery devised by our practical forefathers to establish and perpetuate these looked-for blessings to themselves and their children was a widespread and easily accessible system of education. The idea of liberty by enlightenment was the very corner stone of the government which they edified; "equal rights to all" being in their minds a synonym for "equal opportunities of enlightenment for all." The system of education they founded has spread and ramified to every corner of the land, till there can be no question as to the universality of the opportunity which they hoped for. Yet here are we, after a century of such development, confronted by conditions which at least provoke a doubt in their far-seeing wisdom. We cannot but admit the partial success of their idea: the facts are too eloquent for pessimism. But we cannot smother a pang of alarm for the future, arising from the feeling that there is an inadequacy somewhere. It is a perplexing problem — indeed a dilemma. Either there is something wrong with their theory or there is something wrong with our practice. It seems to me that there is good ground for accepting the latter horn of the dilemma, good ground for believing that there is something wrong with the kind of education we are furnishing, good ground for maintaining that our 'culture' is getting out of touch with our life.

And the chief reason for thinking this is that the conditions of our mental life have fundamentally altered in the last quarter century, while the material of our culture has remained to a large extent what it was at the time of the Renaissance. In short, that we are trying to put new wine into old bottles.

A RADICAL CHANGE IN INTELLECTUAL LIFE

The last generation has seen a change in its intellectual life so radical and so far reach-

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ing that there is nothing which is as closely parallel to it (and we may say it in all reverence) as was the change in the conception of the religious life which provoked this striking parable. It has been an era of new wine. As in the one case so in the other, the old things have passed away. A habit of thought that is wholly new has supervened, though the causes that produced it have been long a-work. It is not so much that inventions have followed one another in quick succession to alter conditions of living as it is that the scientific principles underlying those inventions have been of such a character as to alter conditions of thinking. It is a change hard to realize. One generation blends so gradually into another in speech and thought and manners, that even those who live over the transition fail to recognize it. But the change is there all the same, and little evidences of it from time to time come home to the thinking life of anyone who thinks at all. Sometimes it is a wide difference on a fundamental question of personal duty between father and son that only patient love can bridge; sometimes it is a startling recognition of a new condition that the parent must face in providing for the education of his child; sometimes it is a joyous sense of a new freedom, sometimes it is the sad overthrow of a cherished idol. And latterly evidences of it have begun to appear in a despair of the future, political, religious, social, a doubt as to the ability of future generations to solve the problems that will be thrust upon them.

To trace the causes of this new development, to analyze the new habit of thought, and to bring history to the help of science in explaining it, nay, even to catalogue the various aspects of it, would carry us too far afield. And, moreover, it has been done already, time and time again, until one fears the consequences of the *fin-de-siècle* hysteria that it has aroused.

But we are trying to put this new wine into our old bottles. We are making use of practically the same system of culture which served for the needs of the Renaissance, somewhat improved, it is true, its machinery perfected by modern method, and its curricula extended by scientific studies, but essentially the same culture in spirit and in content.

This new wine has come to us largely through science; to some minds it looks as if the new wine was science itself, and to these minds the whole question resolves itself into one of the proper methods of scientific study. But that is a one-sided view; for culture and science are two distinct ends in education, and neither can be sacrificed to the other.

SCIENCE AND CULTURE

The pursuit of science has been defined as the seeking of knowledge for the sake of knowledge, that is, the quest of pure knowledge regardless, in the first instance, of its relation to life. According to this notion truth has no degrees of value; every truth gained is but a stepping-stone to more truth to follow, and all truth leads to the one goal, universal sapience, a goal which the scientist humbly, cheerfully, and even joyously recognizes to be unattainable this side of eternity. The generous feelings of humanity and the deep concern in the betterment of human life are but side issues of the quest.

This is the fundamental conception of modern science in the strictest sense of the word. We are not here concerned with a justification of the conception; it has been completely justified by science itself. In its practical application to educational problems, however, the notion becomes variously qualified by philanthropic and humanitarian considerations, and scientists, when they talk about education, are prone to mix up science with culture to the utter confusion of both, talking of science when they mean culture, and of culture when they mean science. But if this strict conception of science be kept in mind, the notion of culture becomes clear and definite.

For culture is not the pursuit of knowledge for the sake of knowledge, but the assimilation of knowledge to the needs of the normal man. It is knowledge for the sake of life. Its end is practical, not ideal; not universal sapience, but the perfect man. Its function is not to add new increments to man's stock of knowledge, but to develop man by means of the knowledge he already has. For the individual is not only a plexus of mental and physical forces making up a scientific unit in a world of matter and motion, but he is, too, an active agent with volition of his own and a continual concern for his own development

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—a development involving a vast number of complicated relationships and consequent obligations. His interest, therefore, does not stop with the truth of science, but goes on to the conduct of life. Culture is the discipline that trains him into a right understanding of these relationships and obligations.

Science and culture thus form two fundamental aspects of the intellectual life, imposing two consequent obligations upon education. On the one hand, education must supply the means to a wholesome and thorough discipline that will prepare men for the proper conduct of life; and on the other hand, it must furnish adequate preparation and training for the clear understanding and the successful pursuit of science. Education has thus a humanistic aspect and a scientific aspect, and if it is to attain its best results, these two must be harmoniously blended, at least in the elementary stages.

The humanistic elements of culture have always been sought in literature. The individual's experience of life suffers the limitations of time and space: he cannot travel everywhere, nor can he live at all times. When he comes to bring his knowledge in relation to life, this limitation seriously conditions him. The only means of escape is through literature: by this means he can widen his experience so that it will embrace every significant phase of the life of humanity. For the essential cause of literature is human interest, and its essential characteristic is the reproduction of significant aspects of human relations. Through it we penetrate not only all the nooks and corners of to-day's life, but reach a more or less adequate notion of the life of yesterday as well. This latter service is better performed by literature than by history, because history is a more or less arbitrary and scientific selection made to satisfy particular interests, while literature is a natural selection of significant aspects of human life made to satisfy a general human interest. Literature, therefore, must continue to be our chief means of furnishing the humanistic elements of education. And the problem of building an adequate system of culture largely depends upon an adequate study of literature.

Now at the time of the Renaissance the only literature which was recognized as possessing these elements of interest was that developed by the Greeks and extended by the Romans. Vernacular literatures had not reached a point of development where they could compare in richness and fulness with classic literature. "Culture" spelled Homer, Aristotle, Plato, Cicero, Vergil, Horace. And the wine of the Renaissance naturally and fittingly went into these bottles.

But the question is, Will these bottles hold our new wine of to-day? Are they strong enough and large enough to contain it?

THE INVALIDITY OF PRESENT CULTURE

The two chief aspects of our inquiry, then, shape themselves into two questions, one as to the validity and the other as to the adequacy of our present culture. Let us examine for a moment the validity.

The young student begins his culture-training: he is put to work on a military campaign of a Roman general of the first century before the Christian era. Soon he begins on another military campaign of a Greek general of the sixth century before Christ. He passes on to a study of part of a Roman epic version of the Troy-story, military interests being here joined with social; this is often supplemented by a poetical description of Roman farming in the first century A.D. At the same time he is introduced to a small part of a version of the Troy-story in Greek of the eighth century B.C., a version remarkable for a large number of human interests when the language in which it is written is once thoroughly mastered; but this end is rarely reached before the student must abandon the literature. The old notion was that all this was preparatory and necessary to a familiarity with the classic tongues, merely propædeutic to what followed—five years of preliminary training for a subsequent enjoyment of the blessings of culture to follow.

When objection was made to this enormous outlay of energy, the objector was met with the statement that the student was also training his mind to correct forms of thinking by means of the study of an ideally perfect language. Modern science has entirely overthrown this notion of the ideal perfection of Latin and Greek as means of expression, and modern life is beginning to demand more economy in the expenditure of educational

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time than is illustrated by a five years' propædeutic for the mastery of a dead language.

Now all the while this educational process is going on the student is getting a slight smattering of his own classic literature: a couple of books of "Paradise Lost," a play of Shakspere's, a poem of Dryden's, a speech of Burke's, and a story of James Fenimore Cooper's. His language is being taught him very much as it was before science knew anything about its history and development; he knows so little about it that he cannot read Shakspere as Shakspere was written — thinks Elizabethan English is a "funny" way of writing New English (I quote from a typical Sophomore); imagines Chaucer to be a curious conglomerate of modern English and Middle English, and is as ignorant of Chaucer's real speech as a babe unborn — or, to put it even more strongly in Mark Twain's phraseology, "as unborn twins."

The Renaissance theory held that classic literature was so infinitely superior to vernacular literature that the latter could be neglected. We no longer accept the theory, but we still hold to the practice — putting our new wine in the old bottles. Is it any wonder that they show signs of bursting? In the second stage of education matters are a little better. For here the student begins to think for himself. What he does in most cases is to avoid cultural elements altogether and trust to his later experience of life to furnish them. He stores his mind with science, economics, ethics, psychology, supplementing these with history rather than by literature. The momentum of his preparatory training for college, if he has received it through the orthodox channels, often carries him along for one or two years into classical study. His yearning for culture makes him listen patiently to dilettante talk about his own literature. But these things cease to be vital in his training, and by the time he has reached the Junior year they are but ornaments in his course of study.

The real reason for this lack of balance in our education is that our culture is at cross purposes with our science. In it we try to bring our knowledge into relation to a life we do not live. We try to fit together modern thinking and mediæval philosophy. We take truth of science that recasts the whole universe in complemental series and sequences and try to force it under the formal rubrics of mediæval thinking. And then we express surprise that education drifts toward science to the neglect of culture.

Is it any wonder that in an educational system containing this sort of culture cheek by jowl with modern science, the trend of the effort should be in the direction of science in proportion as authoritative prescriptions are removed? The one is frank, direct, definitely organized, and clearly presented; the other is shifty, clumsy, incoherent, and hazily presented. The one is concrete and tangible; the other vague and indefinite. The one is a gospel of fact; the other a dogma of opinion. The truth of the one cannot be interpreted into terms of the other. The new wine cannot go into the old bottles, for they are not strong enough to contain it. If we persist in the foolish endeavor we are making, the old wine-skins will burst and both wine and skins be lost.

THE NARROWNESS OF OUR PRESENT CULTURE

But let us look for a moment at the capacity of these old bottles.

One effect of our new wine has been to quicken our sense of humanity. Democracy as a social and political condition has long been recognized. But have we realized the full consequences of intellectual democracy? Have we frankly faced the conditions of modern thought-life and adapted our culture to it? So long as we continue to use the culture of the Renaissance we must answer no, for it is essentially aristocratic, not democratic. It has long been one of the most subtle means of perpetuating intellectual exclusiveness. Its inherent spirit, disguise it how we may, is still *odi profanum vulgus*. Even were its spirit different, it would still remain exclusive, for it requires special training to begin to acquire it, and special training requires leisure. How is a member of society, hard pushed for mere subsistence, to find time for five years of preliminary training propædeutic to a subsequent culture? Our culture should offer its essential blessings without any condition of previous training save those of manhood and ordinary intelligence. And we cannot make use of a literary vehicle for it no matter how noble

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and generous it may be, if it does not immediately open its doors to the seeker after truth of life. To meet the needs of the present, let alone those of the future, our culture must be more catholic — catholic in spirit, catholic in extent, catholic in accessibility. In other words, it must be national.

If our culture is to harmonize with our science, its literary elements must be such as are closely allied to our actual experience, our national life and national habits of thought. And if literature is to be used as machinery of culture, we must found our culture upon the study of our own literature.

NECESSITY OF A NATIONAL CULTURE

But besides these, which may be called reasons of expediency, there is another and a deeper reason why culture should be national. For a national speech is more than a means of general communication, it is a way of looking at life. The very nature of the process through which language becomes national makes it such. The meanings of words, the significance of their combinations, the force of their stresses, the character of their sounds, are all determined by past associations. Speech is thus not only a vehicle of expression, but it is also the embodiment of a national experience. It is a thing of the present, but a transitory phase of development always conditioned by its past. There is thus a heredity in speech that we can no more shake ourselves free of than we can of our physical heredity. Its characteristics are subtle and commonly escape observation, but their limitations are not, therefore, the less effective in conditioning our thought. We may buy and sell in a foreign tongue, we may transact affairs of government in a speech that is not native to our habits of thought, but we think in inherited idiom even after we learn to translate our thought into foreign words. Our ideas of right and wrong, of fairness, justice, expediency, are to a certain extent those we are born to. A nation's institutions may have this or that external form, but their spirit must always be conditioned by the habit of thought embodied in the national speech.

But though a national speech thus puts upon thought certain limitations, it also gives it certain freedoms. For as national character shapes itself through predilections for certain aspects of thought, the associations of national speech grow rich along the corresponding lines of experience, and it thus becomes a better vehicle for some ideas than for others. Each national language through the course of its development is in this way preparing for itself peculiar fitnesses of expression not possessed by others. French, for instance, is a better vehicle for a quick imagination than English, German is a better vehicle for a deep imagination than French, English a better vehicle for a just imagination than either. Now since these peculiarities correspond to peculiarities of national character, and since culture is knowledge in relation to the conduct of life, an adequate culture, if it is to affect the life of the individual, must be couched in the form of thought peculiar to a national speech, and must begin its work within the limitations prescribed by a national speech. It may, indeed must, afterward pass the limitations and attain to a fuller understanding of truth, but its beginning must be with what is known and understood, even though partially known and imperfectly understood. There is no other way. Even were it possible to impart culture through a perfect medium, some great Volapük of the soul, which was free from the limitations we have been speaking of, culture would first have to be gained through the medium of a native speech because experience is cast in native idiom. And without such a perfect medium, to seek culture in a foreign speech before mastering the native one, is only to exchange natural for artificial limitations, which, as it cannot understand their nature, only confuse and embarrass the mind's thinking processes.

Granting that Greek, for instance, is the best language that the world has yet known in its power to express æsthetic form, that very excellence is a hindrance to the English mind if it has not first gained the fundamentals of its culture through the medium of English thought. For the English mind gets thereby an idea of the conduct of life which it based on the assumption that beautiful form is the first principle of life, an idea that will belittle and dwarf all its subsequent thinking. After the student is more or less established in his culture as it affects his

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experience, he will recognize the Greek limitations and be able to make the proper allowances for Greek notions as to conduct of life. Then he will be strengthened and ennobled by the perception of their true experience, and can add the richness of Greek thought to his own.

A HISTORICAL BASIS ESSENTIAL

Again, if our culture is to harmonize with our science, its method must be historical and not formal. As long as learning remains in a state in which the various parts of it are more or less unknown, it is possible to arrange the parts in such a way that the arrangement will accord with æsthetic notions of form and proportion. The mind, unhampered by the actual, can thus make a very pretty universe to suit itself; in fact, such a universe was just the one which served as the pattern of mediæval thinking, and we have yet to discover how firmly fixed this universe is in our ideas of culture. When science comes in, the arbitrary metaphysical arrangement is broken down, and the order established becomes definite and fixed. Points which appeared isolated before and were capable of being brought into æsthetic arrangement to please the thinking mind, now show themselves to be connected in sequences, and a formal arrangement of them is no longer possible. This historical or sequential arrangement of truth, if I may be allowed to use the awkward expression, has come to be our modern one. The method of culture, therefore, cannot be formal and classical as it used to be, but must be historical. That is, culture must take account of knowledge in its relation to life by arranging it along lines of development and interrelation, and not by fixing it in categories. This has not yet been done, and because it has not been done is one of the reasons why science and culture have been put into two hostile camps. The work of making this truth clear and practical is a task for the coming century, and this is a chief reason for saying that the entire fabric of our present system of culture must be reorganized and adapted to present needs.

The task is especially hard because we use as our chief means of culture, a literature which does not recognize the historical method, and because we strive to wrest our own literature into conformity with æsthetic notions derived from this foreign source. We still interpret it on a formal basis, and study it by classical method. But the very process by which a literature becomes classic and formal is through the arresting of its natural and historic development. Its natural development and expression once interfered with, its standards perforce become formal, and further natural development is not possible. A period of florescence is assumed as the highest point of excellence to which literature can go, and the standards for all literature are taken from it; the literature of the past which has general and abiding human interest is wrested into conformity with these notions, and a body of æsthetic criticism is established whose principles the literature of the future must follow.

OUR OWN LITERATURE A BASIS OF CULTURE

But in the case of a living literature, thought through the medium of a living speech, natural development cannot be interfered with in this way. It may be temporarily (and temporarily may mean for a century or so) wrested from its natural course, but it will inevitably return to its natural development, and that development will never square with a body of 'æsthetic' criticism. The method by which such a literature must be studied, if it is to be understood at all, is the historical method; to study it by the classical method is like studying biology by categories —a wasting of time; indeed, more than that, a narrowing of sympathy and a numbing of the understanding. The chief difficulty in reorganizing culture so that it shall be valid and catholic lies just in this reluctance to give up formal and æsthetic notions in our pursuit of truth, and accept a historical or sequential classification of it.

The basis of our culture is still æsthetic. The ancient idea of 'beautiful' conduct imparted chiefly through the medium of 'beautiful' letters and 'beautiful' arts, a cult of *belles lettres* and *beaux arts*, is still its ideal. It is still founded on the notion that the primary need of man is a need for beauty and not a need for knowledge, that satisfying this need is furnishing the guide to the proper conduct of life. And the result of this inclusion of modern scientific elements in a culture founded on the principle that the education of the æs-

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thetic sentiment is the sole end of culture, has been to give us a system of education that is not homogeneous.

Now the lack of uniformity and homogeneity in our education is due almost wholly to the lack of some connecting link to bind together the scientific and the humanistic elements of culture. We have such a link in the scientific and historical study of English, a discipline at once capable of scientific and humanistic use. It is a subject whose phenomena we all of us become familiar with in the earlier stages of our education; indeed, it is the very first scientific material we get hold of. The laws which bring this material into order and arrangement are clearly connected with fundamental natural processes, — processes of biology, — and are only clearly intelligible in the light of a historical method of study. There is no mental discipline that is so practical or so significant for the conduct of life, with a significance which begins when the child begins to think and continues as long as he continues to be an English thinking being. Above all, it prepares the way for a full understanding of English literature, a means of humanistic development that for us is the only one offering elements of culture characterized at once by catholicity of spirit, catholicity of extent, and catholicity of accessibility.

There are two reasons why we have thus far failed to understand the fitness of English for scientific and for humanistic discipline. In the first place, scientific scholarship in the language has come to us from Germany. The Germans have naturally, and rightly, too, developed the subject in the light of university aims and university ideals. Their enthusiasm for it has been and still is a purely scientific one. In taking over their scholarship we have also taken over their method and have failed to recognize the fact that we are not Germans. A subject, therefore, which is of the first importance for us as a discipline of culture and should for us properly be an elementary discipline, has been handed over to the special student for university and research work.

The second reason is our failure to recognize the means for humanistic discipline in our literature, a failure due largely to our notion that humanistic discipline must be founded on æsthetic principles. We are taught that the most perfect expression of æsthetic ideals is to be found in Greek; we find that our literature does not conform easily to Greek notions of criticism, and we come, therefore, to hold it to be inferior to Greek literature. The scientific study of the subject has not been widespread enough to set us straight on this matter of critical estimate; indeed, many of us do not want to be set straight, preferring opinion to knowledge. We fail, therefore, to get an adequate idea of the historical development of a living literature that, were we only able to read it aright, we might justly claim with patriotic pride to be the fullest and richest of all literatures.

The practical solution of this problem of how to get an adequate vehicle for culture depends, therefore, to a large extent, indeed one might almost say wholly depends, upon the removal of this formal prejudice against English study and upon the spread of accurate and scientific knowledge of the English language and literature through the elementary stages of education — a solution that has a vast significance for the happiness and intellectual well-being of the future.

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THE SPREAD OF GOLF

THE RAVAGES OF THE GAME—ITS EFFECT UPON MEN OF BUSINESS AND WEALTH—GOLF *vs.* OFFICE WORK AND THE RESULTS—ITS INFLUENCE IN FOREIGN COUNTRIES, EVEN AFRICA AND ASIA

IT was not until the spring of 1895 that the ancient Scotch game of golf became any special part of American outdoor life. How it started is an old story, but what it has done and how it has affected men of standing in the community, overworked, joyless toilers in business and the professions who were thought to be beyond the influence of anything so frivolous as an outdoor game, will make an interesting study for some thoughtful investigator of the future.

About forty clubs are within thirty miles of New York City Hall; Chicago has twenty-five or thirty in its immediate vicinity, and Boston boasts as many more; most other American cities can tell the same tale in proportion to population, and a competent authority estimates the present number of golfers in the United States at 200,000. A new golf club which catches popular fancy sells at the rate of 2000 a week (it takes 300,000 a year of all kinds to supply the demand): one of the favorite balls is sold at the rate of 5000 a week, and nearly 3,000,000 were sold in America alone during the past year.

But the interesting part of the golf mania is the human side of the game. Leaving out the comparatively small number of experts, — match players, young college men, and the gifted ones in general, — successful business and active professional men make up the rank and file of players, and they go about it with an enthusiasm which leads their families and associates to doubt their sanity until they themselves catch the fever, or accept it as a well-defined and hopeless mania.

In Europe, in Africa, in Asia, and elsewhere in the world where golf is played, a bag of clubs is a sure introduction to the best people — particularly men, of course — in an Anglo-Saxon community. It is a sign of good fellowship which no other sport can bring; for it has never been spoiled by the sort of professionalism which has killed other worthy games.

In England and Scotland one is struck by the fact that men well on in middle life play so fine a game. To see a man of sixty drive his two hundred yards with the swing of a youngster and count his holes by the fours and fives is inspiring for some of us younger men who had thought ourselves getting old. Certainly, the average game of the English or Scotch player is from five to a dozen strokes better than that of the same class here. He seems to have studied the game more and he plays it for its full points, as we play for a score or match. On the other hand, you find at no place abroad the almost blind and fervent enthusiasm which distinguishes the American players. Of course, one can get some good golf in France and Germany, but not much. The Latin races, more is the pity, will never play games of this sort with the Anglo-Saxon.

In South Africa golf has been cut short by the war. When the troops entered Bloemfontein, a friend who was with them took away as his loot the batch of notices of a new golf club just begun, sent out by President Steyn, but destined to be organized under other auspices.

In Australia the game has led a happy and respected life for years, with the result that there are many good courses and skilled players. At Melbourne and Sidney real golf can be played and is played all the year round. At Brisbane there is a beautiful course, a joy to the true golfer, who has an eye on more than the ball.

Golf has been played in New Zealand for twenty years by all the various Macs who left Scotland and carried their clubs with them. In none of these far-away courses do they make playing clubs, but send home to the old country for what they need. The

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golfer who goes to Japan, however, finds himself out of his element, as there is not room in the group of Islands for holes, every inch being occupied by gardens, houses, and farms. New Zealand has the windiest course known to man, at Wellington. The wind is literally always blowing wildly the year round, and, owing to the arrangement of the links, one has to play continually in the teeth of the gale. The stranger has no chance here to beat the local adepts, for the player who would succeed must learn involuntarily to catch his hat as he rounds every corner, or spend more time finding his head-gear than the duffer spends in hunting for his ball.

The English in the Far East have played under difficulties. At Singapore, for example, the links are laid out on the ground of the public charitable institutions. One hazard is the wall of the jail, another the wall of the insane asylum grounds, a third a Chinese burial ground, and the home green is the lawn of an orphan asylum. The course at Calcutta is flat and poor. In Bombay, too, the links are crude, the dirt greens are hot and dusty, and the fair green is of coarse, tufty grass. In Ceylon there is a better course; at Colombo and in Burmah, flat, uncomfortable links are not inviting except to the bold enthusiast. Nevertheless, the game goes on there.

At Hong Kong there is the Hong Kong Royal Golf Club. Their course is in the Happy Valley, but it is flat, and none too good golf is played upon the public race-course, with its many water jumps; moreover, as cricket is played on these very grounds at the same time, the sport is difficult on a holiday. One carries the balls in ice bags if one wishes to keep them in shape. A ball exposed to Hong Kong heat will look more like an egg after being hit squarely and hard, than a self-respecting sphere.

One joy there is about playing in China — there are ten applications for each caddie's job, and as a result the Chinamen become wonderfully expert in the competition which follows. You hire your caddie for the day and pay him, by the rule of the club, 15 cents for the day's play, Mexican money, equal to about $7\frac{1}{2}$ cents here. He is a caddie you'll sigh for in America. These caddies are taking up the game, and the best player in Singapore is a Chinaman.

THE TRUSTS IN CURRENT CARICATURE

"New York's Octopus."



(Charles Nelan in *The New York Herald.*)

"Mr. Bryan opens his Campaign."



(Charles Nelan in *The New York Herald.*)

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"Willie and his Pa."



(Frederick Opper in *The New York Evening Journal.*)

"First Parade of the Campaign."



(Homer C. Davenport in *The New York Journal.*)

"A Continuous Performance."



(Charles G. Bush in *The New York World.*)

"Keeping Cool."



(Leon Barritt in *The New York Tribune.*)

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OUR GROWTH AS A WORLD POWER

ECONOMIC REASONS FOR POLITICAL EXPANSION—THE INCREASE BY LEAPS OF OUR FOREIGN TRADE—GAINS ON GREAT BRITAIN AND OVER GERMANY AND FRANCE—A SCIENCE OF COMMERCE

BY

FREDERIC EMORY

CHIEF OF THE BUREAU OF FOREIGN COMMERCE, DEPARTMENT OF STATE

IN the controversy which has been going on since the results of the war with Spain began to crystallize into political issues, the fact is too often lost sight of or intentionally obscured that the present attitude of the United States toward the rest of the world is the result of economic changes which were beyond the control of any party or any clique of politicians.

For several generations Americans have been conscious of a potentiality which has found crude expression in "spread eagleism," and without always knowing exactly why, the great mass of us have felt ourselves to be a favored people. For a long time we enjoyed a degree of liberty which was unique. It attracted people who suffered more or less from restrictive or even despotic forms of government, and it is not too much to say that the United States was looked upon the world over as an asylum not only for the oppressed but for the discontented, the less fortunate, the adventurous, and the struggling poor of every clime. We held out the hand of welcome to all, and were proud that our boundless prairies and magnificent natural resources enabled us to extend ungrudging hospitality to any one who sought our shores. Secure in the knowledge that we were invincible to invasion on any large scale and having no incentive to the acquisition of territory beyond our own extended limits, we were more or less indifferent to the susceptibilities or opinions of the rest of the world and gave ourselves but little concern about the rivalries of the great military or naval powers.

The war for the preservation of the Union was a titanic struggle which still further emphasized our national sense of superiority, and our growing confidence in the ability to take care of ourselves. There was thus gradually generated an intense Americanism which, in the eyes of the world at large, took the guise of an exaggerated vanity; but it was really an instinctive pride of power which had its root in an exceptional growth in material things. During the past ten years, the United States, without knowing it, has been swiftly approaching the point where isolation would no longer be possible and it would find itself drawn irresistibly into the current of the world's affairs. We are now compelled to assume, whether we would or not, the largest share, perhaps, of the world's work.

By the world's work I do not mean its industrial and commercial activity only, although our material development is the most salient and important fact, and the one which has given us the greatest importance in the eyes of other nations. Herbert Spencer, in his "First Principles," has pointed out in the most striking way the interplay of material and moral forces. It will be found, I think, upon careful examination, that the material development of the United States has gone hand in hand with a wonderful intellectual and social development, and that our progress in industry and commerce has been the propelling force of profound social and political changes.

THE FIRST PLACE AMONG THE NATIONS

Whatever moralists and statesmen may think of recent political phenomena, the fact seems clear to me that they are but the natural and inevitable outcome of our national growth. The United States of to-day is not the United States of yesterday; and we had as well recognize the fact that instead of being a more or less interested spectator of human activity beyond our borders, we are now

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among the most conspicuous of all the actors in the world's drama. Whatever the future may evolve in the creation of powerful nationalities, it needs but a glance at the facts which I hope to be able to present to convince one that our decision in any question affecting humanity at large is, for the present, likely to be more momentous, either affirmatively or negatively, than the decision of any other member of the family of civilized powers.

It is difficult, indeed, to set a limit to the range of questions of world-wide significance which might be profoundly affected by our action, and this not merely in the political relations of different nationalities. It is a well-established fact that the destinies of nations within the past century have been largely controlled by the example of the United States. The French Revolution, for example, although it had its origin in intolerable social conditions, undoubtedly obtained momentum and definiteness from the success of our struggle for independence and the subsequent determination to do away with privilege and the rule of kings. One after another, the Latin-American countries threw off the foreign yoke as we had done, and borrowed from us republican forms. Throughout the continent of Europe, at one time or another, revolutionary movements, having democracy as their goal, have upset thrones, and, in spite of subsequent reactions, have had a strongly modifying influence upon monarchical government. Although the tendency of all English-speaking peoples has for many generations been in the direction of individual liberty, it is hardly to be questioned that Great Britain and her colonies would not have attained so soon to the degree of personal freedom which they now enjoy but for the successful issue of our struggle with the mother country, and the demonstration, in subsequent years, of the practicability of popular government.

This is the most striking as it is the most familiar illustration of the influence of our example upon other peoples; but the same thing applies in the domain of inventive genius and the play of industrial forces. No thoughtful American is so egotistical as to assume that we shall lead the world in all lines of thought or effort; but when one reflects upon what has actually happened, it is astonishing to find how many and how potent are the influences that we have generated, and that have spread world-wide. It has happened, moreover, that, in certain new and virile communities, such, for example, as Australia, our capabilities for original and daring adventure in both mental and material enterprise have been pushed beyond the point of development that we ourselves have reached — a fact that would seem to give a reasonable explanation of our own exceptional position. That is to say: If scions of an old but hardy race are transplanted to a virgin soil, they seem, as is the case with plants, to take on a new, more vigorous growth, and to bring forth fruits with qualities unknown in their former homes.

This is not the place to sketch the progress made in Australasia in the solution of social and economic problems which are still vexing us, but I may refer, in passing, to the remarkable success which has thus far attended experiments in land taxation and the arbitration of labor disputes in New Zealand, and the various forms of government aid and control in the development of industries in South Australia. Many questions of this sort have remained unsettled in the United States, just as our merchant marine has been permitted to languish, for the reason that our people were absorbed with matters which seemed, at the moment, to be of greater concern.

ECONOMY THE CAUSE OF LEADERSHIP

The influence which we are now most forcibly exerting — and this influence has penetrated the self-conceit of nations that had long been accustomed to regard themselves as being without peers in various branches of manufacture — springs from the increasing economy of production. For many years this economy took the form of new processes of manufacture or improved machinery; but now looms up the mighty problem of organized economy of capital in the form of the so-called trusts. There are trusts in Europe, especially in Great Britain, but the world is watching a simplification of capitalistic processes in the United States which is marvellously akin to that simplification of industrial processes which has, with astonishing quickness, placed us far in the front of what might be termed the great sta-

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ples of manufacture. Without entering into the question of the merits or the evils of combinations of capital, we may assume that a country which adds to the greatest efficiency of the human unit of production with the aid of labor-saving machinery, the least waste of invested capital, and draws from within its own borders the most abundant supplies of raw material and fuel, must, of necessity, outstrip any competitor. This has happened in the case of the United States in so marked a degree within the past few years that the great manufacturing nations of the world are addressing themselves most seriously to the effort to imitate or to improve upon our processes and apparatus.

As we advance along these lines, crowding our competitors more and more closely, not only in markets common to all, but in their own home markets, we shall be less and less able to evade those responsibilities which inevitably attend so active a participation in the world's affairs. Commerce is in itself a peaceful occupation and draws its very sustenance from the continued amity of nations. But it were childish to pretend that there are not occasions when a trading nation must assert its dignity or protect its rights with the mailed hand. As in the case of individuals, a nation trading largely must have power of one kind or another at its back, and consequently it is easy to see that, without leaning toward jingoism, imperialism, or any other of the catchwords meant to indicate a preponderance of the military spirit, this country is being forced by its material development to provide itself with the proper weapons of defence.

Without burdening the reader with a mass of statistics, I shall briefly review the recent growth of the industries and the foreign trade of the United States, and endeavor to present the facts which, it seems to me, give substance to the claim not merely of our prospective but actual preëminence as a world power.

PROOFS OF PREËMINENCE

Five years ago the total exports of manufactured goods from the United States amounted to about $200,000,000. Within the three years following 1895, the increase of such exports amounted to $107,000,000, or more than one half the aggregate in 1895. This increase was largely accelerated during the fiscal years ended June 30, 1899 and 1900. According to a recent report of the Bureau of Statistics of the United States Treasury, the total exports of manufactures alone during the fiscal year 1900 amounted to $432,000,000; and the fact is noted that, besides the large excess over any preceding

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year, these exports show also a great gain in the extent of territory covered in the markets of the world.

The United States has long been a great exporter, but it was not until a few years ago that this country began to show a steady advance in the sale of manufactured products. The manufacturing nations had been accustomed to look to us for supplies of cereals, beef, pork, cotton, and other raw materials; and there were specialties in manufacture, such as agricultural machinery, sewing machines, and some lines of hardware, which had commended themselves by their novelty and superior adaptability to the requirements of certain nations. In times of industrial depression in this country, manufacturers were occasionally enabled to unload the surplusage of some branches of production in foreign markets, but the development of a permanent export trade in manufactured goods generally was not anticipated by either our own producers or by those of highly developed industrial countries like Great Britain, Germany, and France, which had long been accustomed to enjoy more or less of a monopoly in special lines of manufacturing for export. In fact, the great majority of our manufacturers were loath to embark upon foreign trade except as an incidental means of relief. They looked upon the home market as all-sufficient for ordinary purposes and were inclined to discourage any general movement to increase sales abroad, from the fear that it might involve tariff concessions which would enable foreigners to enter our markets with cheaper goods.

But first one manufacturer and then another awoke to the fact that our productive capacity had increased to such an extent that even in normal times, with an active demand at home, the annual output was so great that, if we restricted ourselves to the home market, it would be necessary to close down mills for some months of the year or to continue working on shorter time or reduced wages. It was found, moreover, upon actual trial, that, without any special concessions on our part, the European countries were not unwilling to take our goods even though they came into competition with their own. This tendency gained headway from the fact that labor difficulties in Europe happened to coincide with the efforts of our manufacturers to sell goods abroad. This was notably the case in the strikes in the boot and shoe and engineering trades in Great Britain, which forced consumers to cast about for immediate supplies. The result was that not only our boots and shoes but our leather goods generally soon began to commend themselves because of their superiority and relative cheapness. The same thing happened in exports of iron and steel manufactures, and more recently in exports of coal.

OUR INVASION OF FOREIGN MARKETS

Having thus found an entering wedge in the pressing needs of foreign countries, American manufactures began to force themselves upon the notice of European consumers, and our exporters were stimulated to greater and more general effort. One manufacturer argued that if his neighbor could sell goods abroad, so could he; and while this reasoning did not prove to be correct in all cases, it was surprisingly verified in a wide range of articles. American furniture, bicycles, cutlery, labor-saving implements, cotton goods, clocks, and even silks and watches, found ready sale in markets that might have been expected to be closed to them. As has been pointed out in consular reports of our foreign trade, we are actually sending cutlery to Sheffield, iron to Birmingham, silks and shoes to France, beer to Germany. A few years ago this would have been deemed by ourselves as well as by foreigners engaged in those industries the vain shadow of a dream. That we could compete with Manchester in cotton goods on the score of a better product for the money would have seemed equally incredible, although, for many years, a certain class of our cottons had enjoyed a well-established reputation in China and on the east coast of Africa. Within the past year or two, cotton mills have sprung up in the cotton fields of the Southern States and are making large dividends from the manufacture of cotton goods for markets which Great Britain had long regarded as almost exclusively her own. It is not improbable that, besides a great enlargement of our export of cotton goods, a most important result will follow in specializing manufacture in this country, by restricting the New England mills to a superior product which will dominate certain

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markets and leaving to the South the constantly expanding demand for coarser grades.

Just here, we find a striking illustration of social and political results of economic development. The growth of the cotton manufacturing industry in the South has given employment to the mountaineer and "cracker" element which, for generations, had drawn a precarious existence from the soil and lived in habits of shiftlessness and comparative indolence. It has caused the South to look to Oriental trade as an important factor of its prosperity, and has thus had a profound effect already upon its political attitude. Is it not obvious that the course of events which have followed the Spanish war might have been very different but for economic considerations such as these, which reconciled many minds to the expenditure of blood and treasure in the assertion of our sovereignty in the Pacific? It may be contended that this is not a creditable view to take of the motives animating our people; but upon the other hand, it is not to be expected of any nation, however altruistic it may be, that it should refuse to profit by commercial opportunities created for it by the success of its arms.

PROOF OF OUR SKILL IN PRODUCTION

Another fact, which emphasizes the remarkable growth of the United States as a manufacturing country, is the great increase in the importation of materials to be used in our various industries. During the fiscal year 1900, according to our Treasury reports, manufacturers' materials formed a larger share of the total imports than ever before. Two of the five great classes of imports are exclusively materials for manufacture. The first of these, "articles in a crude condition which enter into the various processes of domestic industry," is chiefly made up of unmanufactured fibres, raw silk, wool, crude india rubber, hides and skins, pig tin, and chemicals. The second, "articles wholly or partially manufactured for use as materials in manufacture," includes wood, leather, furs, cement, yarns, oils, dyes and dyewoods, and chemicals. The imports of articles in a crude condition in 1900 was nearly 40% greater than in any preceding year.

The exports of manufactures in 1900 showed an increase of over $90,000,000 and amounted to 31½% of the total exports, as contrasted with 23.14% five years ago, 20.25% fifteen years ago, and 15% thirty years ago. In 1860 our exports of manufactured goods amounted to about $40,000,000; in 1900, to more than $430,000,000, or nearly eleven times as much. In the ten years ending with the fiscal year 1900, the exports of manufactures rose from nearly $170,000,000 to over $430,000,000 — a gain of 150%.

Let us now contrast the industrial growth of the United States, as indicated by its export trade, with that of other countries. In 1860 Great Britain's exports of manufactures exceeded ours by more than $570,000,000. In 1890 our exports of manufactures amounted in round numbers to $151,000,000, and those from the United Kingdom were over $1,000,000,000. In 1900 the showing is very different. Our exports of manufactures were nearly eleven times as great as in 1860, while those of Great Britain have not quite doubled. In 1860 they were about $610,000,000; in 1899, $1,091,000,000 — a gain of $481,000,000.

The rapidity with which the United States was gaining upon Great Britain was already apparent three years ago, and attention was called to our industrial progress in a memorandum by Sir Courtenay Boyle, Secretary of the British Board of Trade, which was presented to Parliament January 28, 1897. His conclusion, at that time, was that, while the United Kingdom was still greatly ahead of either the United States or Germany in its power of manufacturing for export, each of the latter countries, "beginning from a lower level," was, "for the moment, travelling upwards more rapidly than we are, who occupy a much higher eminence." Since then, our progress has continued at a swifter pace, notwithstanding the interruption of the Spanish war and the subsequent growth of consumption at home.

OUR RECENT GAINS THE FASTEST

A comparison of total exports shows that the United States stands second only to the United Kingdom, and falls behind even that great industrial country to the extent of only some $330,000,000. Of course, our agricultural exports are still the great factor of this preponderance in foreign trade; but, as has

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been shown, the exports of manufactures are now considerably more than one-fourth of the total and are constantly growing.

Our exports exceed those of Germany, with her splendidly organized industrial activity, by nearly $300,000,000. Her total exports are nearly $984,000,000, as contrasted with our total of $432,000,000 of exports of manufactured goods alone. France falls still farther behind us than Germany, her total of exports being about $753,000,000. The following table, taken from the Government's Review of the World's Commerce for 1899,* gives the relative position of the principal countries of the world in the import and export trade: —

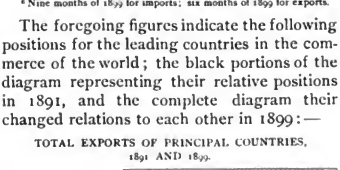
THE WORLD'S TRADE IN EPITOME.

Countries	Imports	Exports
United States	$798,845,571	$1,275,499,671
United Kingdom	2,300,619,989	1,004,388,674
France	813,909,950	753,534,496
Germany	1,302,213,014	983,561,366
Belgium	406,817,945	342,072,621
Greece [1]	12,349,054	7,231,119
Italy [2]	253,590,134	229,417,170
Austria-Hungary	328,191,830	390,191,000
Switzerland	153,001,485	134,232,690
Russia [3]	148,834,481	144,215,260
Canada [4]	152,021,058	154,083,650
Mexico [4]	50,869,194	64,046,246
Costa Rica [4]	4,858,890	5,659,918
Argentine Republic [5]	87,670,900	117,617,780
British Guiana [4]	6,582,778	8,523,318
Uruguay [5]	19,251,397	25,156,754
British India [4]	276,045,752	384,414,790
Japan [4]	86,738,587	87,831,878
Straits Settlements [1]	57,937,664	51,073,664
Cape Colony [5]	63,174,083	103,989,667
Natal [6]	19,534,914	6,521,864
Lourenço Marquez [1]	6,401,772	1,496,737
Madagascar [2]	1,621,319	465,094

[1] Six months of 1899.
[2] Nine months of 1899.
[3] Eleven months of 1899.
[4] Fiscal year 1898-99.
[5] Ten months of 1899.
[6] Nine months of 1899 for imports; six months of 1899 for exports.

The foregoing figures indicate the following positions for the leading countries in the commerce of the world; the black portions of the diagram representing their relative positions in 1891, and the complete diagram their changed relations to each other in 1899: —

TOTAL EXPORTS OF PRINCIPAL COUNTRIES, 1891 AND 1899.



(Black portions of diagram indicate exports in 1891, the white portions, the increase between 1891 and 1899.)

* Published by the Bureau of Foreign Commerce, Department of State.

There are many notable instances of gains in exports upon those of other countries which actually reverse the traditional flow of trade, but the changes which have excited most remark, both at home and abroad, are naturally those in the iron and steel trade, and the export of coal; for these products form the basis of all modern economic progress. England had long held undisputed preëminence in these lines of industry, but the United States is now well in advance of any nation in the world in its production of coal as well as of iron and steel.

The economies in the manufacture of steel which have created great fortunes in the United States in recent years have had so marked an effect upon the industrial world, that they have been the object of concern and imitation both in England and Germany; and within the past year the conclusion has been reached by leading authorities in Great Britain that, in all the varied branches of manufacture of iron and steel, the competition of the United States is one of the most difficult problems that British enterprise has to face. For a long time Great Britain rested content in the conviction that the superiority of her steam coals would continue to enable her to dominate the European markets; but during the recent scarcity of coal in Europe, trial shipments from the United States demonstrated that American coal may compete successfully in supplying the demand for transportation and manufacturing purposes. United States Treasury figures show that our exports of coal rose from about $12,000,000 in 1898 to $15,000,000 in 1899, and the indications are that they will aggregate $20,000,000 in 1900. The consular officers were instructed to report upon the prospects for the increased consumption of American coal in Europe, and their general conclusion is that, if proper facilities of transportation be provided, the sales of coal will be largely and permanently increased. Whether, in the end, it will be of advantage to this country to continue to ship large quantities of our fuel abroad, is a question to be considered; but it seems more than likely that, following the inexorable law of supply and demand, our mine owners will continue to export as long as the profit induces them, and that for a time, at least, we shall occupy the unique

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position of providing the world at once with manufactured goods, the raw materials for most of its manufactures, and the fuel to keep its factories going.

Of the principal articles of manufactured exports from the United States, those of iron and steel rose from $25,000,000 in 1890 to nearly $122,000,000 in 1900; leather from $12,000,000 to $27,000,000; cotton goods from about $10,000,000 to $24,000,000; agricultural implements from nearly $4,000,000 to $16,000,000; wood manufactures from $6,500,000 to $11,800,000. Notable increases are also to be found in exports of scientific instruments, paper and manufactures of paper, manufactures of vegetable fibres, books, maps and engravings, manufactures of india rubber, clocks and watches, musical instruments, paints and colors, brass manufactures, and woollen goods.

In the foregoing maps, an attempt is made to show the distribution of United States manufactures during 1899 in the principal markets of the world, the names of the leading articles being printed on each great division.

When the fact is considered that ten years ago but few of these articles would have appeared in any country, and in most of them there would have been none at all, the diffusion of American exports is seen to have been remarkably general and rapid. It is the more remarkable when it is considered that, until quite recently, but little intelligent direction was given to our export trade. The consular officers, for years, have rung the changes on the need of better methods of transportation, of packing, of a more elastic system of credits, of a careful study of trade usages of different countries, of the employment of commercial travellers conversant with the language and customs of the people to whom they wish to sell, and particularly upon the great importance of adapting goods in qualities, patterns, lengths, etc., to the special requirements of certain markets. To all this our manufacturers lent but an indifferent ear until the time came when they found it worth their while to consider seriously the question of engaging in foreign trade.

There is danger, even now, that, having achieved so large a measure of success in many lines, American manufacturers may make the mistake of thinking their goods will continue to sell themselves. It is not to be expected that nations like Great Britain, Germany, and France will permit themselves to be deprived of markets they have long controlled, without a serious struggle. They will undoubtedly imitate our goods and perhaps improve upon them, and they still have a great advantage over us in their carefully systematized methods of gaining and holding foreign trade. This is especially true of Germany, which, with far inferior natural advantages, has, by means of her wonderful intellectual appliances in trade, accomplished so much in recent years in spreading her wares over the whole face of the earth.

GERMANY IN SOUTH AMERICA

It is, indeed, a mortifying fact which should largely counterbalance the natural conceit we may derive from our recent success in extending our sales abroad, that Germany should have gained such control of the trade of our Latin-American neighbors. With the exception of Mexico, our exports to the principal Latin-American countries for ten years past have either decreased or remained almost stationary, notwithstanding the geographical conditions which would seem to give us so great an advantage.

The truth is, we have taken but little trouble to cultivate the susceptibilities and tastes of the Latin-Americans, while the Germans not only manufacture especially for those markets, but train young men for the purpose of establishing agencies in South America, and thus bring themselves into intimate relation with the chief business centres. Great Britain has long been strongly intrenched in South America, and has freely invested her capital in commercial and industrial enterprises in the principal countries. Thus far, it cannot be said that we have made any serious impression upon the South American market in competition with European exporters.

The explanation is probably to be found in the fact that we have not as yet given sufficient attention to the peculiar needs of these markets. In the increasing stress of international competition which we must expect, the same intelligence and adaptability which have won such success for us in various lines of effort may be expected to apply to con-

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ditions which have heretofore been more or less neglected; and, as our business men become more and more impressed with the importance of a constantly expanding foreign trade, it may be assumed that scientific processes will be substituted for the negligent or experimental methods now in use.

THE SCIENCE OF COMMERCE

We have worked out most intelligently the special problems of economy of production and the use of capital, and have shown ourselves to be most efficient in the development of our natural resources, but it was not until quite recently that we realized the necessity of applying scientific methods to all the branches of our activity. It is only within the past few years that we have given any attention to the intelligent development of our export trade. Coincidently with this awakening has come the demand for a more efficient consular service as one of the instrumentalities, as also the agitation for a revival of our merchant marine. The consular service, it may be remarked, has of itself improved under the stimulus of increasing trade which it has undoubtedly promoted most remarkably, notwithstanding the obvious defects of appointment and tenure.

It was to be expected that a country still so young and so immature as our own would proceed in a more or less desultory and haphazard way; but signs are not wanting of the steady growth of a scientific spirit in commerce as well as in mechanical arts, and one of the most encouraging symptoms is the recent introduction into several of our leading universities and colleges of special courses preparatory for foreign trade and the diplomacy which, in the future, must be an important auxiliary of our business intercourse with foreign nations.

A NEW ERA AND OLD THEORIES

IT is the most common observation of the time that within the last four years the horizon of the people has widened more than in the preceding forty years. The little war with Spain and the responsibilities it brought, the consequent readjustment of the Republic to the other Great Powers, the revolution in the opinion that other nations had of us, our reasonably certain settlement of the standard of monetary value after forty years of dalliance with it, our bounding foreign trade, the better organization of industry, the steady and healthful growth of our cities, the part we have been called on to play in China, — these events in politics, in finance, in industry, and in commerce, mark a revolution in our national life. And our thought is reshaped by them. Meantime, American statecraft, American diplomacy, American education, American scholarship, the spread of comfort, and the arts of living, have all made advances not dreamed of when men now in middle life were young and when men now old were in middle life. It is a new era, if there ever was one, and it is not wonderful that men who formed their opinions twenty or even ten years ago, and have held to them without the revision demanded by the swift current of events, should spell danger with every letter of the alphabet, and should fall into a mood of gloom. In periods of uncommon activity the inactive have always so suffered. Nor are the inactive in our time willing to suffer in silence — they write and talk, some of them with most fluent earnestness.

The singular spectacle is presented, therefore, of a great volume of current political and social discussion which has as little to do with contemporaneous conditions and forces as the debate about secession or about the inerrancy of the Scriptures. A democracy learns by events — perhaps in no other way. And the multitude, which is under the tuition of events, is not likely again to take an interest in many of the old subjects of public discussions. Men who do not know the educating power of recent events keep threshing old straw; but old theories when flung against a rising tide will stem it no better than old shoes, and it makes no matter how violently they be flung.

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HISTORICAL CAMPAIGN CARICATURES

POLITICAL caricature in America is virtually a development of the last thirty years. Though prior to 1870 there were occasional efforts to employ caricature as a political weapon, they were too crude in execution, spasmodic in appearance, and indefinite in purpose really to influence public opinion. Thomas Nast was the first American to give vitality and force to it. His remarkable pictorial warfare on William M. Tweed remains the strongest thing of its kind in the whole range of caricature, and the cartoons which he drew during the presidential campaigns from 1872 to 1884 were equally powerful.

Joseph Keppler, who died in 1894, was for many years Mr. Nast's sturdiest rival in the field of political caricature. *Puck*, which he helped to found, afforded a congenial medium for the exercise of his unusual powers, and made his pencil a recognized factor in political campaigns. Much of Mr. Keppler's success was due to his singular quickness in seizing an idea. A mere suggestion had but to be made to him, when he would instantly grasp it, and see things in it of which the person with whom it had its origin never dreamed. The idea treated with such weird strength in the "Last Awakening of the Democratic Rip Van Winkle" was borrowed from a rough sketch sent to Mr. Keppler. It is doubtful if any other artist could have made so telling a cartoon from a mere suggestion.

Equally effective is the cartoon in which, after the election of 1892, Uncle Sam searches vainly for the Republican candidate.

Mr. Keppler, during his long connection with *Puck*, was the master and instructor of an active generation of political cartoonists. These included, besides his clever son and namesake, whose cartoon "Marooned" recalls an interesting chapter of the campaign of 1892, Bernhard Gillam and Louis Dalrymple.



LAST AWAKENING OF THE DEMOCRATIC RIP VAN WINKLE.
[Joseph Keppler in *Puck* (1880).]

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WHY THEY DERIDE HIM.
[Bernhard Gillam in *Puck* (1884).]

Mr. Gillam, after several years' work for *Puck*, left that periodical in 1886, to become one of the proprietors of *Judge*, serving as its chief cartoonist till his death in 1896. Never malicious or brutal, Mr. Gillam hit hard, but always fairly. The drawings "Why They deride Him," dealing with the Democratic opposition to Mr. Cleveland in 1884; "The Democratic Jonah," which recalls Mr. Dana's belated support of Cleveland in 1888; and "Stand from Under," which has to do



THE DEMOCRATIC JONAH.
[Bernhard Gillam in *Judge* (1888).]



A DOUBTFUL OUTLOOK.
[Grant Hamilton in *Judge* (1888).]

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with David B. Hill's profitless fight for the Democratic nomination in 1892, are typical examples of Mr. Gillam's art. Most of the political cartoons of Mr. Dalrymple, author of the cartoon dealing with the close of James G. Blaine's public career, and for a dozen years or more a member of the staff of *Puck*, are noteworthy for the truth and trenchancy of their satire. He draws well and never loses



STAND FROM UNDER.
[Bernhard Gillam in *Judge* (1892).]

sight of the fact that the American public will not tolerate either a bad jest or its maker.

When Mr. Gillam died, his place on *Judge* was taken by Grant Hamilton, one of the strongest of the younger men. Mr. Hamilton has an open and facile mind, is a stout hater of all things that work against right living, and when he has a story to tell and a moral to point, as the drawing "A Doubtful



WHERE IS HE?
[Joseph Keppler in *Judge* (1892).]

Outlook" proves, delivers the one and indicates the other with humor and power.

The most remarkable development in Amer-



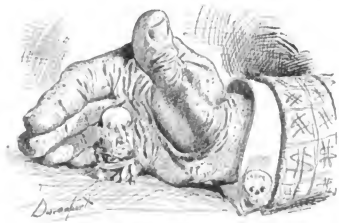
RESIGNATION, REJECTION, AND RETIREMENT.
[Louis Dalrymple in *Puck* (1892).]

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MAROONED.
[Joseph Keppler in *Puck* (1892).]

ican caricature during the decade just closing has been its very general adoption by the great daily newspapers. Conspicuous among the artists thus brought into prominence are Homer C. Davenport, of the *New York Journal*, and Charles G. Bush, of the *New York World*. Mr. Davenport, as his two cartoons dealing with President McKinley and Senator Hanna bear witness, has an abun-



A MAN OF MARK.
[Homer C. Davenport in *The New York Journal* (1896).]

dance of force and originality, while Mr. Bush, a draughtsman of great technical skill, has no living superior in applying the pictorial method to the explanation of a principle. His "The Apathy Campaign" is one of the pithiest and most effective of the many brought forth by the presidential contest now drawing to a close.



A NEW STATUE IN WALL STREET
[Homer Davenport in *The New York Journal* (1896).]

The drawings here brought together, covering a period of twenty years, give in epitome a pretty good history of recent presidential campaigns.



THE "APATHY" CAMPAIGN.
[Charles G. Bush in *The New York World* (1900).]

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COST OF NATIONAL CAMPAIGNS

FROM $100,000 TO REËLECT LINCOLN TO $5,000,000 SPENT THIS YEAR—THE LARGEST CONTRIBUTORS OF EACH PARTY—SECRET AND EMERGENCY FUNDS —CAMPAIGN COMMITTEES AS AN OLIGARCHY

MR. LEONARD SWETT, who, of course, knew all the facts, once said that the whole expense of Lincoln's first nomination, including the cost of headquarters, telegrams, music, fares of delegates, and incidentals, was less than $700. It cost the Republican National Committee less to elect Lincoln in 1860 than is now frequently spent in a single Congressional district. "That committee," said Mr. Swett, "spent a sum that would now seem contemptible, but it did its work as thoroughly and successfully as any committee the party has had since. In 1864, at the most critical hour in the country's history, the sum of $100,000 was all that was spent to secure the reëlection of Lincoln."

Campaigning since then has become a fine art, and costly. It is well within bounds to say that it will cost more than $5,000,000 to elect a President this year. This sum will be spent by the National Committees of the two great parties, and does not include the funds collected by the several State Committees, Congressional Committees, and smaller agencies.

The use of large sums in presidential campaigns was begun by the two committees which managed General Grant's canvasses in 1868 and 1872; but Mr. Tilden more than any other one man is to be credited with the perfecting of the political methods now in vogue. He had genius for the management of men on a large scale. He saw that the mere discussion of great issues which arouse the enthusiasm of the masses, though essential, does not in itself insure success, but that much work must be done in secret, and that every voter must be brought into direct personal contact with some campaign management. Such a plan requires a comprehensive system, great volumes of correspondence, and an almost limitless use of printed matter — in a word, an organization which touches almost every voter in the land. Mr. Tilden's business methods have replaced the old methods of hurrah and sentiment.

In 1876 more than $800,000 were collected and spent by the campaign managers of the two parties. Four years later they had at their disposal more than $1,000,000, and in 1884 the campaign disbursements were half as much again. In 1888 the Harrison-Cleveland campaign cost not less than $1,800,000; and in the campaign of 1892 the expenditure of the two National Committees were quite $2,000,000. Finally in 1896 more than $4,000,000 passed through the hands of Chairman Hanna and Chairman Jones and their associates. Indeed, some of the shrewdest politicians are of the opinion that the science of campaigning will be developed in the near future to such an extent that each National Committee will be compelled to organize something like a bank or a trust company which shall have control of its financial operations; for they have now become so enormous that they demand something different from the comparatively irresponsible method of handling the funds in past years.

THE EXPENDITURE OF CAMPAIGN FUNDS

What use is made of the money raised by the National Committees? The answer is not always easy. First on the campaign expense account stands the cost of maintaining committee headquarters. Before 1896 campaign headquarters were established in the city of New York, but in that year both parties, though maintaining branches in the metropolis, had their chief headquarters in Chicago, and the same plan has been adopted this year. The headquarters of a National Committee must be as extensive as a great railroad's executive offices, and the cost of their maintenance, including clerk hire, will

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exceed rather than fall below $3000 a day. Moreover, a great many of the parades and meetings in New York City and in Chicago are arranged and paid for by the two National Committees; and these cost large sums. A torchlight parade in New York costs from $12,000 to $20,000, and a large public meeting costs from $3000 to $4000 for rent, music, speakers, decorations, advertising, printing, et cetera.

The chairman of a Campaign Committee is selected by the presidential candidate himself, and is always a man in whom the candidate places implicit confidence, both as to his loyalty and his political wisdom. The first work of the Committee is to prepare campaign literature. These documents not only inform the people, but give to orators and writers a mass of facts and arguments. This year the two National Committees have probably spent $500,000 in the preparation, publication, and distribution, through the medium of State, county, and city committees, of campaign documents.

Then each headquarters maintains throughout the campaign a news bureau, which, under the direction of experienced political writers, supplies partisan news and arguments to the smaller newspapers. A good many newspapers are subsidized — newspapers in foreign tongues, and certain class journals. There are hundreds of these kinds in the larger cities and towns, nearly every one of whose editors is ready to support either party for a consideration. They do not say so openly, but they announce early in a campaign that unless they are "helped" in some way by the National Committee to which they appeal, it will be inconvenient for them to devote a proper amount of space to "booming" the candidate. Payments to these political soldiers of fortune usually take the form of standing orders for a certain number of papers of each issue, the orders ranging from three thousand to ten thousand copies.

The campaign orator does not now cut the figure that he did in former years, but his influence is still great, and must be taken into account by the managers. This year hundreds of speakers are under the direction of the National Committee, especially in the doubtful States. Their expenses are paid, but the services of most of them are given without pay. A great number of attractive speakers, however, — men who have no particular fame or who cannot afford to neglect their business without compensation, — are paid during the entire campaign. Some receive $100 a week and expenses, a few as much as $1000 a week. They get cues from headquarters and are cautioned as to the peculiarities of each locality. They talk differently to the farmers and to the city people; and as a rule those speakers are preferred who tell many anecdotes, and know how to point a political argument with a joke. The result of this flood of oratory, which costs a National Committee from $100,000 to $200,000, is doubtful. As Republican mass meetings are attended mainly by Republican voters, and Democratic mass meetings by Democratic voters, the number of converts made by them must be small. But they serve to create enthusiasm, and to maintain and to improve party discipline. Useful for the same purposes are the campaign clubs and societies, whose organization and equipment cost in the aggregate a large sum.

LARGE CONTRIBUTORS TO CAMPAIGN FUNDS

How is the money raised for all these expenses and for others even greater? The work has developed shrewd and successful beggars of money. As a collector of campaign funds Mr. Marshall Jewell, who was for several years chairman of the Republican National Committee, perhaps never had an equal. When others failed he succeeded, and it is told of him that in Boston in a single day he collected $170,000. President Arthur was a charming beggar, and when he was an active politician his services as a money-getter were always counted as of the first importance. He had much to do with the collection of the funds disbursed by the Republican National Committee in 1880. So had Governor Levi P. Morton, who, it is generally believed, within twenty-four hours collected $300,000 or thereabouts for purely technical politics. His powers were again put to the test in 1888. He followed a method of his own. He prepared a list of men whom he knew, and put down opposite their names the sums he thought they ought to give, and he went to see them. Few

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words were spoken. The business men looked upon the matter as a business transaction, and felt confident that Mr. Morton had good business reasons for calling upon them.

"Do you think I ought to put my name down for so much, Mr. Morton?"

"If I had not thought so, I shouldn't have named that amount."

Most men paid without further ado.

The fund used to elect Mr. Cleveland in 1884 came, in the main, from a dozen men. Mr. William L. Scott, Mr. William C. Whitney, and Mr. Oliver H. Payne each gave, it is believed, quite $100,000. It is thought that Mr. Edward Cooper and Mr. Abram S. Hewitt each contributed an equal amount. Senator Benjamin F. Jones was chairman of the Republican National Commitee in that year, and with the aid of Senator Stephen B. Elkins he collected in round figures $800,000. But this sum did not pay all the bills, and there was a deficiency at the end of the campaign of $115,000. This Senator Jones made good out of his own pocket.

Nor was he the only heavy loser. Mr. Blaine at the outset of the campaign drew his check for $25,000, and sent it to the National Committee as his share of the campaign expenses. In the last days of October, his managers became seriously alarmed at the situation in New York, New Jersey, and Connecticut, and decided, as a last expedient, to raise $150,000 for use in those States. Only $50,000 could be got from the usual sources, all which had already been freely drawn upon by the committee. Mr. Blaine was informed of the difficulty, and, on the assurance that the money would be collected and repaid to him later, he advanced $100,000. But after the campaign the National Committee was unable to make any collections, and Mr. Blaine's loan was not repaid. It is thought that it was mainly to retrieve this loss that he wrote his "Twenty Years in Congress."

Mr. William L. Scott's contribution to the Democratic campaign fund in 1888 was $250,000. Other generous contributors were Messrs. Christopher C. Baldwin, E. C. Benedict, and William C. Whitney, who added perhaps another quarter million to the fund; but the liberality of Mr. Cleveland's friends did not prevent a deficiency at the close of the campaign of $200,000, which Senator Calvin S. Brice, then chairman of the Democratic National committee, is said to have paid out of his own pocket. A large sum, it has been said $400,000, of the Republican campaign fund of 1888 was collected by Mr. John Wanamaker. An equal amount was raised in New York City through the efforts of Mr. Cornelius N. Bliss and Governor Levi P. Morton. Four days before the election, Senator Quay, who managed the Republican campaign, felt the urgent need of an additional $200,000 and appealed to Senator T. C. Platt. Senator Platt at first protested that, in the brief time, the task was an impossible one; but he finally accomplished it by discounting a note which, according to common belief, bore the indorsement of Mr. Collis P. Huntington. The largest contributions to the Democratic campaign funds four years ago were made by the "silver interests" — the owners of silver mines.

Campaign managers say that it is under most conditions easier to raise money for the party which is out of power than for the party that is in office. Be this as it may, it is certain that the Democratic managers in 1892 had a larger fund at their disposal than the Republicans. And in 1896, when the Republicans were out of office, the committee headed by Chairman Hanna collected a campaign fund almost twice as large as the fund of the managers of the Bryan canvass. It is an open secret that the largest subscriber to this fund was Mr. William K. Vanderbilt, who sent his check for $150,000. It was not sent in answer to any appeal, but was a deliberate and voluntary gift late in the campaign. The largest subscription from a corporation came from a purely savings and benevolent association, whose directors voted $25,000, "to protect their depositors from loss of their savings."

This fact brings us to the source of most of the campaign funds in recent years — the great corporations. The so-called "business interests" contribute most freely to the party that is in power; for they wish no change in the conduct of affairs; but many large concerns contribute to both sides, to have friends at court in any event. Office-holders are another certain source of revenue to the National Committee of the party in power, and a third source is a considerable class of

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men who, anxious to secure political prominence or to occupy high positions, give lavishly as a means of advancing their personal interests. Finally comes the aggregate of small popular subscriptions, which, especially in contests of unusual enthusiam, is a large sum.

Since methods of spending campaign funds have increased faster than new means of raising them, it has been found more and more desirable that the chairman of a National Committee should be a man of large private fortune, with a credit and business status which inspire confidence and respect. When subscriptions are slow in coming in and he has only promises instead of cash, he must become responsible for the funds needed to meet current expenses, or advance them; and such pledges and advances often amount to a small fortune. It may be said, in parenthesis, that the caution of contributors, and the close watch that one National Committee keeps on the other, reduces to a minimum the likelihood of misappropriating campaign funds. Although they are disbursed on honor, and a final accounting is seldom, if ever, made, their disbursement is made in all routine ways by strict business rules. The money is handled by men who may be trusted implicitly. In 1888 Mr. John Wanamaker was at the head of the finance committee which collected the Republican campaign funds, and he carefully supervised all disbursements, receiving vouchers for them all. But this innovation, introduced by him, had its disadvantages and has not been repeated.

SECRET AND EMERGENCY FUNDS

There is always a sum, large or small, spent in "secret" work, which is charged on the books of the Committee to some general account, where it could never be traced, just as the contributions of corporations are charged on the books of these corporations to some account where a stockholder, for instance, could never find it. There are many uses of campaign money that the managers think prudent to keep secret which are not illegitimate. Indeed, the money that is used at last in buying votes on election day may have been properly charged on the books of a National Committee as a legitimate expenditure; and it may have been perverted from its legitimate use on the last day by the last man who received it; or — it may have come from some "secret" fund which had in the beginning been provided for uses that would not bear investigation. How much is spent in buying votes can never be guessed at. But since the secret ballot law went into effect in many States, bribery has been lessened.

A very important and costly piece of work is the polling of doubtful States. From the first, the National Committee keeps in close and constant touch with the several State committees. Some States are so safe and others so hopeless as to require no attention from the National managers; but for strategic reasons a sham campaign is sometimes made in hopeless States. The real battle-ground is the doubtful States. The National Committee, at an early stage of the campaign, causes to be prepared as nearly a correct and complete list of the voters in these States as possible. This canvass is a political census. When, in 1876, Mr. Hewitt was chairman of the Democratic Executive Committee, there were two sets of blanks for every precinct in the United States, one showing a preliminary and the second a final canvass. It disclosed fairly accurately the position of every voter. In 1892 Chairman Harrity, of the Democratic National Committee, a week before the election, made up a table showing the States that would be carried by each party. The electoral vote of Cleveland was two more than Mr. Harrity claimed.

Most of the men who make these canvasses have to be paid, and the aggregate cost is, of course, enormous. But it is money that is regarded as well spent, for the real weak spots are discovered, and campaign work is redoubled where it is most needed. Meetings are organized at short notice, an army of workers is employed, and the best speakers are sent where they may change votes. Thus the most expensive work of a national campaign is done during the last three weeks before the election. Every doubtful State and city is closely watched by men prompt to discover every change in the political tide, and money is transmitted in large sums to the localities in which it is believed it will produce the best results. A few days before the election in 1888 West

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Virginia received $44,000 from the Democratic National Committee, and the Republicans sent $50,000 to the same State. About the same time the Democrats sent $100,000 into Indiana; and three nights before the election Chairman Quay, of the Republican National Committee, sent $300,000 from New York, to trusted lieutenants in Fort Wayne, Indiana. A fortnight before the election of 1896 the Republicans became doubtful about Iowa. Chairman Hanna at once resolved upon a personal canvass of every doubtful voter in the State. He proposed that every voter not classed on the polling lists either as a downright Democrat or a downright Republican should be visited by some zealous and tactful member of the Republican party. Before election day the thousands of such men in towns, in cities, and in the country were sought out and appealed to by the Republicans most likely to win them; and this canvass is said to have cost the Republican National Committee more than $200,000.

Such incidents always mark the strenuous, hand-to-hand fighting of the closing days of a national campaign. Political parties are now so thoroughly organized and national campaigns are so skilfully conducted, that the vote of every State can be foretold with reasonable accuracy at least ten days before election, but the loss of a presidential election by 1200 votes proves the lurking perils that beset the pathway of the wariest political strategist.

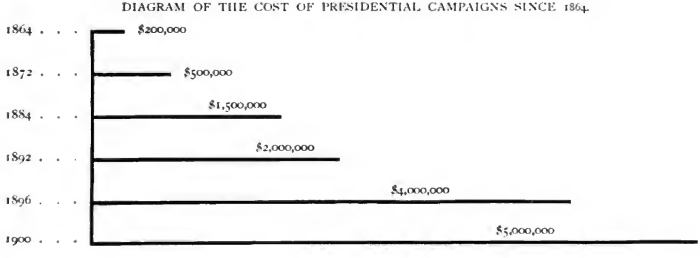
Reckoning all the expenses in all the States, it may be roughly estimated that a presidential campaign, including also Congressional, gubernatorial and lesser campaigns, causes the total expenditure of perhaps $20,000,000.

COMMITTEE OLIGARCHIES

The work of campaign committees, National, State, Congressional, and even county and ward, is not done when the election is held; for the whole vast machinery is kept in existence, even if it have periods of inactivity, and work begins again, long before the public suspects it, in preparation for the next nominating conventions. The campaign committees are often the strongest influence in nominating candidates as well as in electing them. Thus an irresponsible oligarchy has grown up. But it differs from almost every other oligarchy in history in this — only a few, and they the vulgarest, of the oligarchs receive public credit, or money, or dignity, or great offices, or any reward, except the excitement of the game. Indeed, many of them spend large private fortunes in the work. But it is such exciting exercise that few men who once engage in it ever lose a keen interest in it. Most of them work for the fun of it — the exhilaration that comes of producing world-wide results. Some work for purely patriotic reasons.

But the danger point is not the personnel of this vast political machine, but the growth of a system that requires such enormous sums of money. If a presidential candidate were nominated only to reform this very system, his managers, to elect him, would have to spend millions of dollars.

DIAGRAM OF THE COST OF PRESIDENTIAL CAMPAIGNS SINCE 1864.



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THE VIEWS OF MR. BILLY SANDERS

THE HUSTLING QUALITY OF "MARK" AND THE BENEVOLENT PHILOSOPHY OF "MACK"—PHILOSOPHERS IN GENERAL AND ESPECIALLY THE PHILOSOPHERS OF TRUSTS

BY

JOEL CHANDLER HARRIS

MR. BILLY SANDERS has his own way of looking at passing events, and his comments thereon being something out of the usual order, he is treated with great consideration and respect by the rising generation in his community. When he comes to town, he usually goes to the hotel which has a wide and pleasant veranda. There he is sure to find a sympathetic audience, which, in spite of the familiarity his humor invites, has great respect for his opinions. His interest in politics continues unabated, though he professes a great contempt for the whole business.

He is hardly ever without an audience of some kind; for when he fails for a day or two to come to town, the young men, and, indeed, some of the older ones, make it a point to pay him a visit at his comfortable home, where they are always sure of finding a warm welcome. He draws a very delicate distinction, however, between his home and the tavern, as he persists in calling the hotel. At the tavern, he leads and monopolizes the conversation; in his own house, it is with difficulty that he can be drawn out. He maintains that it is discourteous for a host to take hold of a subject and discuss it in a way to ride over the opinions and views of his guests. "When I ax a man to dinner," he says, "I might as well help myself to the vittles fust, as to up an' do all the talkin'."

Therefore, it is on the veranda of the tavern that Mr. Sanders is at his best. He feels that he has the privileges of a guest, and he takes advantage of them. He made his appearance there recently after a somewhat prolonged absence, and the young men who were sitting in its shadow made haste to place a chair for him and to inquire about his health.

"Well, I tell you," said Mr. Sanders, "I've felt better'n I do, an' then agin, I've felt lots wuss. I reckon you'll have to locate the state of my condition some'rs betwixt the ham and the shoulder—sorter middlin'. I ain't complainin'. I've been blessed beyan' my deserts. I flung away my specks the year they yerked Cleveland out of the Buffalo beer-gyarden an' sot him up as the demmycratic Joshway; I don't have to hol' my han' to my year for to hear myself snore; an' I ain't had no call for a third set of teeth."

"Mr. Sanders is the only philosopher we have left," explained one of the young men, after introducing the old gentleman to a commercial traveller from Ohio who was making his first trip to the section of Georgia in which Harmony Grove is situated.

"Don't be onjust to the rest of 'em," suggested Mr. Sanders, giving a casual but critical glance at the stranger. "Don't leave any fond, familiar names off'n the list; give 'em all fa'r play. Don't forgit Mark an' Mack when you're a-huntin' for the ginnywine brand and sample." His tone was solemn and assured as his clear blue eyes once more threw their searchlights on the stranger.

"You mean McKinley and Hanna," the commercial traveller remarked.

"Tooby shore; tooby shore," replied Mr. Sanders, seating himself with something of a grunt, and fixing his legs in a comfortable position.

"Well, I don't know about McKinley—but, really now, it never struck me that Mr. Hanna was much of a philosopher; and I know him pretty well."

"He's the finest in the business," Mr. Sanders declared in a tone of authority. "He stands at the head of the perfession, as you may say, an' Mack ain't many jumps behind him. Mack kinder takes after me; he's willin'

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to set down an' rest ever' once in a while an' shed a sweet smile on the wimmen an' children; but Hanna's a hustler. He never tetches nothin' that he's willin' to put down. He's in a class all by hisself, an' shines on the heights, as the poet says, like the mornin' star winkin' at the wanin' moon.

"Lookin' at it from my pint of view," continued Mr. Sanders, "they ain't nothin' cheaper ner easier than bein' a philosopher. But to be a philosopher after the manner of Hanna (ef you'll excuse the po'try that natchally pops out'n the subject) you've got to sleep wi' your duds on an' git up an' eat a sandwich by early candle-light.

"The perfession an' pursuit of philosophy is as different in these days from what it useter be as ef Tommy Edison had took hold on it an' het it up wi' a live wire. What does Mark do when the expandin' trusts come along an' ax him what he wants?

"Why, he cocks his head on one side, an' draps his wattles, an' says, says he, 'Gi' me a light, an' a dang big bunch of it! Ef you want honest money, le' me have the handlin' of a good, big chunk — paper or specie!'

"Now, I leave it to you, my friend," nodding to the commercial traveller, "ef the Hanna philosophy don't take the socks off'n the Sockertees brand, an' leave it bar'footed in the dust."

The stranger laughed, but before he had time to make any comment, Mr. Sanders resumed: —

"It's natchal, as well as agreeable, in civilizin' ever'thing an' ever'body, an' in hitchin' ourselves to the trolley-wire, that we shouldn't overlook an' neglect philosophy. In ginny-wine philosophy, wi' 'Git Thar' marked on the dashboard, Mark is settin' the pace. Me an' Mack ain't in sech a hurry. We're philosophers all right enough, but we ain't got no special train for to ketch.

"What's the use of our advanced civilization, an' our mor'l prog'ess, I'd like to know, if we can't patch up our philosophy so's it'll gallop along with ever'thing else? Poverty, a wet dog, an' a blue-gum nigger is things to be kept out'n the house ef you want to have a contented mind: an' me an' Mark an' Mack have come to the conclusion that philosophy that ain't got no perquisites tied to it had better be put on the top shelf wi' ol' Plato an' all the other dagoes that know'd more'n they thought they did. What you reckon them fellers'd do ef they could be brung to life an' sot down in the midst of our social whirligig, an' have a chance for to listen at the tee-tee's an' the ta-ta's that make up the bulk an' heft of talk up an' down the country? Why, they'd throw up the'r han's an' ax for a good big doste of morphine.

"Then, take t'other side. S'pose we had some native-born Platos an' a half a dozen Sockerteeses, an', stidder sellin' goober-peas on the street-cornders, they was to set thar an' blab out the kinder talk an' conversation that's made the name of Sockertees as fresh as a last year's mack'rel; what you reckon would happen? Why, they ain't a city on the United continent that makes any pertence of good gov'ment whar such carryin's on'd be winked at. The trusts an' corporations'd call the city council together an' arrange for the fellers to be legally lynched. An' ef the city council showed symptoms of hangin' back, the railroads'd call the legislature in session and suppress the agitators! A feller that loves his country an' is willin' to be shot in the abdomen for to keep the glorious flag wavin' over a lot of Filipeeners, has got to w'ar bedroom slippers wi' rubber heels for to keep from disturbin' our 'business interests.'"

"Well, Mr. Sanders, what is your system of philosophy?" asked one of the young men.

"I ain't wedded to no special system," replied the old man, after a pause. "You've seed men afore now wi' a whole passel of walkin' canes — one for ever' day in the week, if need be, an' a gold-headed one for Sunday. Well, that's the way wi' me. Yit I'll not deny that I've got a pet system. It's on wheels an' it'll run on the same track wi' Mack's. I didn't invent it — Oh, no! it was old in years long before I was born, an' I ain't no spring chicken. I don't wanter snatch no man's laurel patch from him. You see, it's this way: there come a time in the history of the world when men-folks thought they'd cut a purtier figger wi' britches on than they did wi' nothin' on but a night-shirt or somethin' of that sort. Well, britches come into fashion, an' then Satan put it into some feller's head to put pockets in 'em, an' right then an' thar was hatched the philosophy that's ketched me an' Mark an' Mack. Mind you, I ain't

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braggin' on it; I'm jest a-givin' you the plain facts.

"Our system has evoluted consider'bul sence the britches-pocket was invented; it's expanded! No longer'n t'other day a good neighbor of mine got caught in a saw-mill, and when they unlimbered the machine he wa'nt nothing but a lump of clay, as you may say. Well, sir, I brung me an' Mack's philosophy to my aid, an' you'd be surprised to know how well I stood it. Considerin' my age an' the gener'l feeble condition of both body and mind, I bore up under it wonderful well. It may astonish you, but I bore up better'n the man's wife an' children. That's where me an' Mack an' Mark have the advantage of so many people; we're philosophers by trade.

"Mark is specially gifted that way, an' I'm kinder envious of his talent — be jigged ef I ain't. He hollered prosperity when he woke up, an' he'll go to bed yellin' it. Ef he was called into the Pennsylvany coal mines tomorrer, he'd bounce aroun' amongst the men an' wimmen that ain't handled no money wages in a year an' sing the same tune; an' he'd laugh an' joke, an' hunch the gals wi' his elbow, an' poke the hungriest in the short ribs wi' his thumb, an' ax 'em why in the world they wasn't spendin' at least a part of the season at Cooney Islan' or some of the other waterin'-places. You see what philosophy 'll do fer a man.

"I'll bet you a thrip to a ginger cake that Mark 'ud up an' tell you right now that they ain't no reason under the sun, considerin' the great prosperity of the country, why the coal miners an' fact'ry han's of the North American continent shouldn't 'a' took a European tower this summer. An' when you come to think on't you can't find but three or four reely good reasons why they didn't go across wi' Mark when he banished hisself to London, endurin' the early part of the summer.

"But Mark ain't the only huckleberry on the bush. There's Mack. I'm reel fond of Mark; but Mack comes the nighest to bein' my kind of a philosopher. Why, you can look at that man's pictur's an' see Benevolence oozin' out like rozzum on the sunny side of a loblolly pine; an' ef it's so in the pictur's, what must be the state of the man hisself? Why, he's got a smile that you could rock a baby to sleep in. Oh, yes! Mack's my kind of a man ef I'm to have a sesso in choosin' a pardner. I had a right hearty laugh at the way Mack brung his Benevolence to b'ar on the Porto Rican tariff business. It was like eatin' a suet puddin' after camping out in the bushes for a fortnight or more. In gener'l, the tariff issue is calculated to gi' me a case of the heaves, but Mack has put a twist on it that's new enough to draw a big crowd.

"I had a right hearty laugh when the boys in Congress lifted the curtain a little an' gi' me a chance to see the diff'rence betwixt Mack's maxims an' his morals. At fust 'twas our plain duty for to have free trade wi' Porto Rico, then when the sugar folks had collogued wi' the sugared crowd, Mack made up his mind that the worl' wouldn't end ef we only done a part of our plain duty.

"When the trusts put a ruffle an' a couple of feathers on our plain duty, Mack didn't know it; he'd never seed it before; he give it the back of his han', smilin' all the time like he had a vision of angels an' jest men made perfect. Now, I'd like to know what complaint you can make agin' sech philosophy as that — the philosophy that mixes a big dose of North American Benevolence wi' Business?"

Mr. Sanders paused, and before he could begin again, the Judge of the county court came up. "Mr. Sanders," said the Judge, after an exchange of greetings, "how are you getting on with your new family?"

"Which family is that?" Mr. Sanders inquired.

"Why, the widow and orphans of Jack Landrum who was killed in the sawmill."

"Well, it was this way," replied the old man, grinning broadly, "Jack didn't have no life 'nshurance, ner no real estate in Atlanty, ner no money in the bank, ner no house an' lot whar they'd been livin' at, an' so after 'twas all over an' done wi', I axed 'em over to dinner, an' be jigged ef they didn't take possession of the house. Yes, sir, I had to move up stairs. When you come out to see me, Judge, be keerful that you don't wake the baby wi' your hollerin' an' bawlin' at the gate."

The Judge was passing on, but Mr. Sanders called him, and the two walked slowly down the street.

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NORTHERN INDIAN AND DOG SLEDGE (Igloos in the background).

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A DAY'S WORK OF AN ARCTIC HUNTER

STARTING BY AURORAL LIGHT AND RUNNING OVER ICE FOR TWELVE HOURS—A 10 × 11 FOOT HOUSE FOR NINETEEN PEOPLE AND THREE DOGS—SLEEPING IN AN AIR-TIGHT HUT

BY

A. J. STONE

ARCTIC EXPLORER IN THE INTERESTS OF THE AMERICAN MUSEUM OF NATURAL HISTORY

[The experience of Mr. Stone, the Arctic hunter, has been an exceedingly interesting one. Five years ago he was engaged in business in Montana, but his whole interest was in natural history. With the support of the American Museum of Natural History, he prepared himself for an Arctic journey by the most rigorous training—starting out in the morning, for instance, without breakfast, and climbing over the mountains all day long without touching food. He started on his first Arctic trip in 1896. For four years he was exploring the northern interior and coast-line from Seattle to a point about two hundred miles east of Franklin Bay, travelling in one sledding trip, along the coast, more than a thousand miles. Of the country through which he travelled comparatively little was known. Mr. Stone during his journeys corrected and made exact the undefined geography of the northern coast; compiled a list of the region's fauna, and added to our knowledge, among other animals, a new mountain sheep, the *Ovis Stonei*, and a new caribou; and made a close study of the northern tribes, both Indian and Eskimo, most interesting in its detail. Indeed he has observed most carefully two tribes which, we believe, have never been scientifically described. In the present sketch he tells of a unique day's work done on Christmas Day, 1898, near the mouth of the Mackenzie River. This magazine will contain from time to time vivid stories of what "a day's work" means to men in different walks of life, and this lifelike picture forms an excellent introduction to the series.]

THREE weeks passed rapidly at Herschel's Island, with the colony of Noonitagmioot Eskimo to amuse and interest us, and December was already half gone when we started back to Fort McPherson. Progress was slow, and with storms and bad sledding it was Christmas when I reached Oak Pik again.

Christmas comes to the fields of ice and snow as surely as it comes to the land of flowers, but not a Christmas of chiming bells and laughter and play. Out on the masses of ice that break in the wind and current, the great ice-bears of the Eskimo growl and fight over a seal they have caught or the stranded carcass of a giant bow-head; and in the mountains, the home of the reindeer, the wolves are plotting for their holiday feast; while the traveller, facing the icy wind, tingles at its touch and shivers as he thinks of the South.

The coast was low and treeless, with no living thing in sight except my Indians and dogs. Beyond was the monotonous stretch of country which forms the delta of the Mackenzie River. We were still one hundred and eighty miles from camp, and the hardest part of the journey was before us, for we had hitherto been travelling on hard ice and snow, and the soft snow of the sheltered places was still to be passed.

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A KOOKPUGMIOOT ESKIMO.

On this Christmas eve, however, we were fortunate enough to find an overhanging rock and a few odd sticks of driftwood; and we had house and hearth and Arctic comfort. Over a slow fire on the top of the snow we made our tea, which, with a strip of bacon and two hard biscuits, completed each man's supper. It was far from enough, and the poor dogs had to be satisfied with a small portion of whale-blubber, but we were all used to stinting ourselves of food, and were thankful for what we had. Supper over, the Indians rolled themselves up in a knot, dog fashion, and, winding themselves up in skins, were soon asleep in the burrow we had made in the snow. The dogs were already stretched at full length, asleep, all except Zilla. Poor Zilla, my foregoer, a sturdy, never-tiring fellow, was at last worn out. It is not sentiment but sincere truth when I say that I grieved for him as for a friend.

The night was perfectly fair. A clear moon shone down on the white fields about me, and the stars were bright with an Arctic winter's brilliancy, while just before me glimmered and sank the embers of our fire on the snowtop. To the north was the great ocean; to the east and south the low, flat plain; to the west the northern ridge of the Rocky Mountains; and all lay a pallid white. The wonder of it all held me awake until long after the fire was dead. For the moment I was perfectly satisfied with the danger and hard usage of the days just past, lost in that great land of white that stretched everywhere about me; and then, finally realizing that such days were before as well as behind, and that I must make myself ready for them, I bundled myself up for the night beside my dogs and Indians in our burrow.

Christmas morning found me up at one o'clock, and two hours later, having eaten a breakfast which differed from our evening meal only by the addition of a few beans, we were ready to start. One of the Indians ran ahead to show the way, the other took the first sled, and I, the second. The dogs ran off briskly, and seemed glad to leave our night camp, for, looking back, we could all see the form of poor little Zilla lying beside



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ESKIMO WOMEN AND CHILD.

[These are of the Kookpugmioot tribe. There is little real difference between the various tribes of Eskimo save in the matter of locality. The women of the picture have rather better and neater furs than the average Eskimo women.]

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A TYPICAL ESKIMO HEAD.

[This man is dressed in skins and fur in the usual fashion, and wears "tootucks" through his lips. He has lost one eye—a strikingly common disfigurement among these tribes.]

the dying fire. He had died during the night.

AN ARCTIC CHRISTMAS MORNING

The morning was cold and calm, not a breath of air stirring. The moon had lowered and was paler. The sky shaded from a light blue to a deep, dark purple at the horizon. A beautiful aurora swayed its great ribbonlike folds gracefully above us as if stirred by a breeze; then tied itself to the invisible handle of a brilliant, fan-shaped electrical display that just tipped the purple of the north, as if in preparation for the festivities of the season. There was a breathless hush over all. Even the dogs' harness bells were clogged with frost and completely muffled. There was not the howl of a wolf, the hoot of an owl, the twitter of a bird, or even the breaking of a twig. The soft swish, swish of my Loucheux snowshoes intensified rather than broke the silence.

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The snow was yet hard and the dogs travelled rapidly. I ran beside my sled as one in a dream. An illusion of unreality controlled me, and I became an imaginary being following a fancied dog-team over unknown, unreal fields of ice and snow. It was a land made



ESKIMO MOTHER AND CHILD.

[The women carry their children this way in a deep hood on long journeys. This lady is wearing a suit of "imported" furs.]

by magic, a day which made me glad for what I had been able to do, content with scanty food and no shelter, and fearless as to the future. All day long I ran with the sled. I did not tire, for my running seemed mechanical. I knew nothing of exertion or the passing of time, and but little of my surroundings. I remember having seen the moon at the noon hour directly north of me, about five degrees above the horizon, and I wondered at it greatly; but soon I had forgotten it all, and was again running and dreaming beside my sled. Only a few minutes after, as it seemed, I heard the barking of the dogs, and, looking at my watch, was astonished to see that I had been constantly running for just twelve hours, and at a speed of about three and one-fourth miles an hour. It was a strange sort of a day for an Arctic explorer to spend, this of running in a dream over miles of ice and snow; and I cannot explain it, unless it was because the day was Christmas day and I was alone on the north coast.

My dogs turned to climb the sloping river-bank, and I knew we must be approaching Oak Pik Igloo, where some Eskimo were living. Even while I helped the dogs to climb the bank with the sled, we came upon a narrow strip of willows, and passed through them upon the small lake. Pushing through more willows on the farther bank, we came suddenly upon the low, dome-shape igloo, covered with snow. As may be judged from my description of our Christmas eve supper, we had a very limited amount of food. And these Eskimo are very fond of white man's food. It seemed that deception was the only way by which we could obtain lodging and keep food enough to last through our journey. So I told them without any compunction that we were starving, and prepared for a night as a guest of the igloo.

The Indians had already unloaded the bedding, and had started to carry it inside. I followed them, getting down on my hands and knees and crawling through the low passageway. The atmosphere that met me from within was heavy and sickening; but, of course, one cannot be too fastidious in an igloo. While we were shaking hands with our new friends, a few dogs were thrown outside to make more room for us. The Eskimo is really a very courteous host.

A 10 × 11 FOOT HOME FOR TWO FAMILIES, GUESTS, AND DOGS

The interior of the hut was almost square, with a floor space of, I should say, about

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A PARTY OF ESKIMO.

[Just such a party as Mr. Stone spent his Christmas night with. Among them may be seen the varied styles of furs and skins worn. The third Eskimo from the right of the picture is smoking the short, tiny-bowled pipe so common among all the tribes. It hardly serves for more than two or three whiffs at once.]

ten or eleven feet, and about five and a half feet from floor to roof. It was the home of two families, nine people in all, and numberless dogs and puppies. Two native oil-lamps were burning, and by their yellow light I could see the faces of my companions. A very interesting study they were, too. The youngest was a little girl evidently about nine years of age, with a face that would have been really pretty had it been clean and had her hair been combed, but these are over-niceties with which the Eskimo women never worry themselves. Yet they all complained of their dress, and the scarcity of good furs.

Dead willows made a fire in the centre of the camp, and one of my Indians brought up two kettles of water from the lake, one for the tea and the other for *losh*. These were to make our Christmas dinner: *losh*, the ugliest, most worthless food fish on earth, not fit for the hungriest Arctic dogs, and tea without sugar. One of my Indians broke up the frozen mass of fish into chunks with an axe, and threw them into the kettle without seasoning of any kind. The day had been a long one of continuous travel, and this indeed seemed a poor reward for it all. Then the history of previous travellers in this region and their privation came to my mind. Fifty years ago Sir John Franklin's entire expedition perished in the very latitude of this, my Christmas camp. Of an army of brave, helpless men, one hundred and twenty-nine in all, not one remained to tell us of all the suffering and misery they experienced. Theirs was an heroic struggle against too



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AN ARCTIC WHALER IN WINTER QUARTERS.

[At Herschel Island when Mr. Stone was there at this time the whaler which lay blocked up with blocks of snow for the winter, furnished him with some good companions. Indeed, on the first day of the trip he describes, the men of the whaler accompanied him along the coast.]

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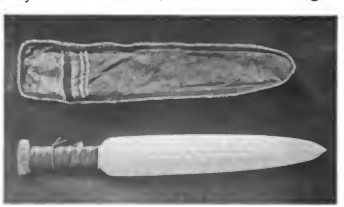
AN ESKIMO GRANDFATHER.
[A typical old patriarch of the Igloo.]

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great odds. Mine was a rosy Christmas, after all, full of health and boiled *losh*.

I gave the natives all the tea they could drink, which pleased them so much that my dogs had a veritable feast at their hands. The evening meal was scarcely over when one of the native women brought out a copper kettle almost full of filthy, greasy water, hung it over the fire, and dropped in a mass of fish. When the mass had had time to boil she produced a couple of dirty wooden platters which had evidently been used for years without washing. To appear well before her white visitor, however, she did dip some of the boiling liquid into them from off the boiling fish, twirled it around for a moment, and poured it into the kettle again. Then, taking a greatspoon formed from the horn of the *Ovis Dalhi*, she dipped up the fish, and each family gathered about its platter. I was asked to join them, but refused with as good a grace as was possible, and was watching them enjoy this addition to their meal when there crawled in through the door a party of seven visiting Eskimo, — four men, a woman, and two children, making in all nineteen people and three dogs in the little hut, and a large number of dogs outside.

The woman who had just come was a rather pretty Eskimo woman, and wore a beautiful new suit of "imported" reindeer skins that fitted her exceedingly well. After sitting before the fire for a few minutes, and brushing the frost from her furs, she unfastened her belt, and, putting her hands around to one side, drew out a little reddish brown ball of human flesh, perfectly bare, and evidently only a few weeks old, from beneath her gar-



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AN ESKIMO SNOW KNIFE AND CASE.

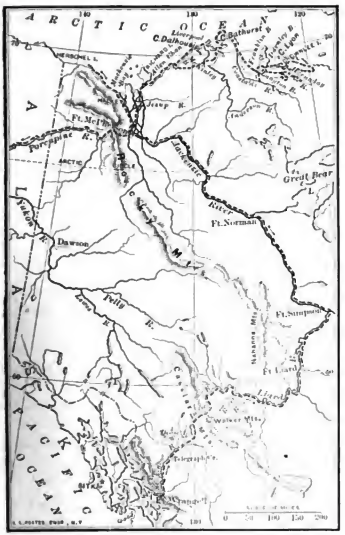
[This peculiar knife was made of a piece of scrap iron obtained from some whaling vessel, shaped and tempered in a rude hand forge. In spite of this it was beautifully polished, with a remarkably exact, tapering groove down the middle. The case is made of very costly undressed skin decorated with beads and porcupine quills.]

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ment. Then came its little furs, and into them it went, until, at last, it looked like a perfect bundle of fur.

A SUSPICIOUS BEDFELLOW

These newcomers, also, were ready for the meal of boiled fish; and, that once completed, they all turned to the frozen fish once more. When they had finally finished their eating, I talked and traded with them, giving tea and tobacco for some trinkets they had made. The evening had passed rapidly, and it was midnight when the party retired. I was allotted a larger space than any one else, in one corner, and a big, villanous-looking fellow, one of the newcomers, whose appearance I did not like in the least, volunteered to arrange my sleeping-gear for me. He succeeded far better than I could have done. Yet I could not help distrusting him, for he had a wild pair of eyes and watched me constantly. In one of the oil lamps they left



MAP OF NORTHWESTERN BRITISH AMERICA.

[Showing Mr. Stone's route and his geographical discoveries.]



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AN ESKIMO HEAD.

[A characteristic head of one of the Eskimos in his prime. The bone ornaments in the lip of this man are particularly interesting. These large "tootucks," as they are called, are considered worth too white fox skins per pair. They are stuck through gaping holes made in the lip for the purpose.]

burning a small wick that cast a faint glimmer of yellow light about the dingy hole. I fell asleep quickly, but it could not have been long after when I woke with a start. Luckily I only opened my eyes slightly, for I saw my villanous-looking friend sitting up, bending over me, and looking directly into my face. I was satisfied to lie still and watch him, but not without a thrill of fear. He sat motionless for a while, then leaned back, lighted his pipe, and took two or three long whiffs, Eskimo fashion. All at once, to my surprise, he turned over and fell asleep. Evidently his curiosity was satisfied, and he had decided that the white-faced stranger from the south was not such a remarkable man after all. For myself, I was well pleased with his lack of appreciation.

Notwithstanding my restlessness and the lack of air, — for at night they seal up the igloo entrance, its only ventilation, and make

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AN INDIAN HUT NEAR THE MOUTH OF THE MACKENZIE RIVER.
[While slightly different from the Eskimo Igloos, this gives an excellent idea of the space available for the large party with whom Mr. Stone spent the night.]



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AN ESKIMO WOMAN.
[Showing the method of dressing the hair.]

the hut as nearly air-tight as possible, — I slept well during the remainder of the night, and we started in good spirits in the morning; in good spirits, but without breakfast, for, although the Eskimo offered us more frozen fish, we decided to breakfast en route. That night's entertainment did not whet our appetites.

We bade farewell to our hosts, who had shown courtesies, if not comforts, to us, and were away for the fields of soft snow and hard travelling before us. So passed my Christmas, and when, a week later, I sat beside the fire in my little cabin home at Fort McPherson, while the wind pounded against the cabin walls, I remembered that white Christmas Eve, the unreal dreaming day by the sled, the strange meal and night at the igloo tavern, but, most of all and sadly, my old companion Zilla, who lies buried in the snow of our camp by the overhanging rock. It was the sort of day that so impresses itself on a man's memory as to become fixed forever.

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THE RICHES OF A RURAL STATE

THE NEBRASKANS' EXPANSIVE VIEW OF LAND AND LIFE — SOCIAL AND POLITICAL GROWTHS IN A WHOLLY AGRICULTURAL COMMUNITY — NO MANUFACTURES, NO MINES, FEW JAILS, NO PUBLIC DEBT — TOWNS AS PARASITES

BY

WILLIAM R. LIGHTON

[The author of this article has written in a private letter about the article as follows: "It is hopeless to try to present the whole matter in a magazine article; but I have tried to cover the principal points in a suggestive way. I have avoided a mere statistical treatment, but all the figures used have been verified. I have taken nothing for granted, but have personally examined every table of which I have made use.

"I have written from the point of view of a citizen of Nebraska, but of one who is not blinded to the state's errors of policy in administering its industrial affairs. I have had much benefit of counsel with sober-minded men who are 'on the inside' of life here, and so have been able to present the whole case fairly.

"In the brief reference that was made to political life, as affecting the industrial, I have found the greatest difficulty. That is a matter of extreme importance — not so much because of the results it is to yield, as because of the menace that lies in a continued eastern misapprehension of the western farmer's needs. In Nebraska, Kansas, Iowa, Dakota, Wyoming, and all the western states of this class there is an intricate and inseparable relation between industry and politics, both in theory and in practice. My difficulty has been in confining my discussion to one or two paragraphs, and in avoiding the danger of coloring the matter with personal convictions. I have tried to state it all without prejudice."]

NEBRASKA is more exclusively agricultural in its activity than any other American State. Agriculture is of course the dominant industry over all the great prairie lying between the Mississippi River and the Rocky Mountains; and the conditions of life in Nebraska are more or less the same as in this whole region; but the other States each have some collateral resources and activities. Nebraska is the extreme case. It has developed no mineral wealth; it buys practically every ton of its coal; it has no native forests worth mentioning, — hardly enough to supply its people with a winter's firewood; it has no commerce but the sale of its surplus farm products and the purchase of the simple necessaries of life which it does not produce; it has almost no manufactures save those mills, packing-houses, and dairies which put its food products into form for consumption; it has no navigable waterways — in short, it has nothing but soil and sunshine; it is nothing but a "green botanic expanse," a magnified garden patch and barnyard. The Garden of Eden was not more purely pastoral. Political economy here is brought back to first principles; for most of the complex elements that elsewhere confuse social and economic problems are here reduced to their lowest terms; and life and work have a directness and simplicity that make their meaning and tendencies comparatively easy to understand.



Photograph by Cross.

THE FAMILY OF A RETIRED FARMER IN SOUTH-EASTERN NEBRASKA.

When Nebraska was organized as a Territory in 1854, it included a portion of Colorado, Wyoming, and the Dakotas; but when, in 1867, it was admitted into the Union as a State, its present boundaries were fixed. The mountains, with their forests and mines, were taken away, and there was left a prairie with a mean altitude of twenty-three hun-

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Photograph by Cross.

A RELIC OF PIONEER DAYS.

[An old sod house in Franklin County, Nebraska.]

dred feet, — eight hundred or nine hundred feet on the eastern border, rising to five thousand or six thousand feet toward the foothills in the extreme northwestern corner. The soil is a measureless deposit of loess and alluvium, chemically and physically identical with that of the Rhine valley. No one knows its average depth; but in most parts of the cultivated area one may go down for a hundred feet without finding a stone big enough to sink a fish-line. The soil is uniform in texture and composition throughout its great depth; brought from the lowest level, after a short exposure to sun and air, it will support a luxuriant vegetation. Exhaustion by any natural process is impossible, and exhaustion through cultivation appears almost impossible. Forty-five years' experience has shown that the more the soil is cultivated, upturned, and exposed to climatic action, the greater becomes its productiveness. Artificial fertilization has never been practised.

Innumerable rivers and creeks cross-seam the broad surface, and about 12,000,000 acres lie within the river valleys. The rains come mostly in May, June, and July, and the winters are dry. Underlying almost the entire State is a constant sheet of water, whose principal source is the mountains, and this is largely available for use in irrigation, by means of wells and windmills.

Temperate Nebraskans do not say that their land is the happy valley where "all the diversities of the world are brought together, the blessings of Nature collected, and its evils extracted and excluded." That was the cry of the land agents in earlier years, but it did more harm than good. The best thing that can be said of the State is that Nature here affords limitless opportunities for hard work, with assurance of reward to the intelligent worker. Those who were the pioneers in exploiting the adaptabilities of soil and climate had to face adversity; drought, hot wind, and crop failure have occurred four times within thirty years, — often enough to spice assurance with doubt, and to modulate the song of plenty into a strain of anxiety. But every apparent failure has yielded good results, teaching things that were necessary to be known. Failure was not always caused by natural conditions, but sometimes by ignorance of those conditions. When the eastern portion of the State was settled, it was found

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that the grains could be grown abundantly; and as the plough moved farther and farther westward, grain-growing was attempted on new lands as a matter of course. It took time to appreciate the meaning of the fact that as one crosses the State to the westward there is a gradual but constant increase of altitude, on the scale of ten feet to the mile, and a correspondingly gradual decrease of rainfall. This condition, now so obvious, was not definitely impressed upon the people until five or six years ago. When it was realized, it was turned to good account; but the process of realization was painful.

To sum up the matter of natural resources: One-half of the State is included within the richest part of the "corn-belt," while the other half is in the best of the cattle country. There could be no happier combination.

CORN-BELT AND "BRAIN-BELT"

But in building a State, the temper of a people is a factor as important as natural resources. It is well to say that Nebraska is also included in the "brain-belt," which is said to have geographical limits as well defined as those which regulate crop conditions. Consider, it is less than fifty years since a plough first touched the soil of Nebraska, but in 1900 there are more than 15,000,000 cultivated acres. If the State can be said to have a past, its remoteness consists less in years than in contrasts. Of those men who were the first to disturb the absolute virginity of the soil, many are still living, and they will this year see more than one-quarter of a billion bushels of corn harvested from eight and one-half million acres. There will be approximately 35,000,000 bushels of wheat, 50,000,000 bushels of oats, 2,500,000 cattle, 2,000,000 swine, and 1,000,000 sheep. There are 3,500,000 fruit-trees and 750,000 vines. When the Klondike excitement was running high, the prophecy was made that $200,000,000 would be taken from the gold-fields before they were exhausted; but Nebraska is taking from its soil more than $300,000,000 almost every year, and exhaustion can never come. If there is no great depth of perspective in the State's industrial prospect, at least the fore-



A TYPICAL FARM-YARD SCENE IN EASTERN NEBRASKA.

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ground is full. The population of 1856, which numbered 4000, has increased to more than 1,000,000, and the actual value of real and personal property is now as much as $1,000,000,000. The State has no bonded debt.

It has been no light task to bring these things to pass; men of a lighter temper would not have done it. It is true of husbandry as of few other human activities that results are not achieved fortuitously. If the blind vagaries of chance play a part in any man's work, that man is not the farmer.

It was a miscellaneous lot of men that crossed the Missouri River in 1854, when the Indian lands of Nebraska were opened for settlement. This was then the remote frontier, having no communication with civilization except by days of slow travel over the trails. When the Oklahoma country was opened, a few years ago, it was almost instantly populated; but Oklahoma lay just over the fence from well-settled regions, and there was no delay in communication with the world. People could get to Nebraska only after days or weeks of wagon travel, or by the slow boats that came up the river from St. Louis. Of those who came, some were farmers by first intention; but a great many were attracted by the mere novelty of the experience, or by real or imaginary opportunities for becoming suddenly rich. There was a great deal of trading with Indians and traffic of one sort or other, of various degrees of honesty. There was also a class of "land-grabbers," who were content to get what they could and to hold it against the future, waiting for the labor of others to give it value. Some of those men are now to be numbered among the richest in the State; but they have had little to do with the making of the State's wealth; their fortunes represent mere accretion, and really signify nothing of importance. The men who made Nebraska were the tillers of the soil; without them there would have been no social permanence or real wealth.

There was nothing romantic in the development of the farm lands of the eastern portion of the State, except as life may be called romantic in any pastoral wilderness, where there is more or less of contact with rude native peoples. In the beginning of Kansas, blood was shed for an idea, which colored and ruled the whole life; but the pioneer farmers of Nebraska were men who came here for the simple and avowed purpose of getting on in the world; a good purpose, but rather commonplace when one tries to write of it. Of those early settlers who are now living, most are worthy specimens of a worthy type, — plain, sensible, honest men, who have never begged any odds in the game of life, and whose strongest wish seems to be to stand square with their fellows. It was Carlyle's lament that the rugged heroic quality of manhood is so often sacrificed for the histrionic. I think Carlyle would have loved the pioneer farmers of these prairies, who had the very unhistrionic habit of "sawing wood and saying nothing." Those early laborers waited for no applause; they were concerned with nothing but their work and the keeping of their integrity. They knew something of hardship, as a matter of course, but they were not moved by it. The fear of failure was hardly present with them. They did not come here to fail; they came to succeed, and naturally enough they succeeded.

In the course of time the eastern portion of the State was settled and brought to a high state of production, and later immigrants were compelled to go farther and farther west in each succeeding year, in order to find unoccupied lands. When immigration passed to the west of the 100th meridian (so far as a line can be fixed), there was practically a new element in the problem of getting on. The newcomers, in traversing the older and cultivated region, passed cornfields equal to any in the world, — cornfields in which a man on horseback could be as effectually lost as in a forest. The influence of example is strong; the strangers would be filled with an impetuous desire to go and do likewise. The only trouble was, that the corn would not grow in the western portion; for between the Missouri River and the 100th meridian, near the centre of the State, there is a difference of two thousand feet in elevation, and a decline of about one-third in the annual rainfall. Once in a while, Nature would seem to give some coy sign of consent, but not often; and, for the most part, the only variety in the record was the meagre variety between a short crop and a total failure. For a long time the men were not

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NOTHING BUT SOIL AND SUNSHINE.

to be daunted; their ill-fortune seemed only to toughen the fibre of their resolution, and they kept on doggedly, — corn, corn, corn; failure, failure, failure. The climax came only six years ago.

The Nebraska railway companies had for sale immense tracts of subsidy lands in that part of the State, and were anxious to get them "settled up." No matter about difficulties; people must be induced to go there and work out their own salvation. Accordingly, immigration bureaus were organized, and the lands were offered at low prices and upon easy terms, so that no man need be hindered by poverty from getting a farm. The poorer a man is, the more susceptible he is to the influence of tales of sudden and great riches. The perfervid literature of the land agents brought an influx of settlers, most of whom were very poor. They had no means to make experiment and discovery; there was nothing to be done but to plant corn. The only result was disappointment. Hope is a glorious resource for the mind, but it makes a poor filling for the stomach. Those who could worry through somehow made other trials. In the Nebraska confession of faith there is no pleasant provision made for the "quitter." We are all more or less deeply affected with a sporadic optimism, which makes us slow to take due account of adverse conditions. The faint-hearted "quitter" is apt to be lightly regarded. Those men were not faint-hearted; they were splendidly courageous.

But optimism will not compel corn to grow where there is deficient rainfall; it will not prevent drought and hot winds, as the farmers of the western lands discovered in the year 1894. After that woeful summer, western farms were abandoned and western neighborhoods were deserted, and the prairie was streaked with emigrant trains bound eastward, That year was the nearest approach to tragedy in the State's history. It was a hard lesson, but it had to be learned. To correct the mistaken impression that has got abroad, I should like to say, with the greatest earnestness, that those men did not fail because they temperamentally deserved failure; they failed because they were struggling, however bravely, against unknown conditions. As it has turned out, the State is now much better off than it would be with every acre suited to the growing of corn.

CATTLE ON A THOUSAND HILLS

In the early days, those empty lands farther west had been used as pasturage for migratory herds of cattle, that were driven up from the south to be "summered" where the wild grasses were richer and more luxuriant. Three or four years ago, after the abandonment of the lands by the farmers, "the cattle came back," — this time not in migratory herds of

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alien ownership, but as the property of Nebraska's own people. Now there are cattle upon a thousand hills, outnumbering the human population more than two to one. The western half of the State breeds cattle, while the eastern half raises corn for making the cattle fat; and there is the solution of the whole "arid land" difficulty. There is another aspect of this matter to be mentioned hereafter. The people are greatly relieved. They speak of the "revival of the cattle industry" as the most important in the world. The Hebrew children in their wilderness worshipped a golden calf; we worship the whole bovine family in flesh and blood. We do reverence to the very ground the cow walks upon, — land which five years ago we thought waste and unprofitable. The most nutritious of wild grasses and the best of alfalfa grow luxuriantly upon the high plains, and there the cattle range in summer; then in the fall the marketable beeves are brought eastward, into the corn country and nearer to the packing-houses at South Omaha, where they are fattened. If it were not for the cattle, there would be this year about 200,000,000 bushels of surplus corn sold to the elevators for shipment abroad; but as it is, more than half of this surplus will be fed at home to home-grown stock. The nearness of the live-stock market — lying as it does within our own State — increases the price which the farmer receives for his corn, if he is a seller and not himself a feeder. There are men courageous enough to prophesy that before long Nebraska will be buying instead of selling corn.

To meet Nature half way and to subdue her wild unwillingness is a comparatively easy matter, demanding of the man only a rude strength and patience and calm courage. Having these qualities, the Nebraskans have won finely. So far as the man's relations to the soil are concerned, his position is now assured. But there are other matters for careful after-consideration. Granted that the man has native power sufficient to wrest the materials of wealth from the soil, what then? A true definition of wealth is not to be given in dollars, nor in acres, nor in bushels.

SOCIAL PRODUCTS OF PRAIRIE LIFE

Upon the purely social aspect of the prairie life but little need be said. According to sociological theory, the criminal instinct ought to be found at its lowest ebb in a community whose people sustain primary relations with the earth; and that is exactly true of Nebraska. As it is the most exclusively agricultural of all the States, so its records of crime are the least. Some of the well-settled counties do not even maintain a jail, having found it a needless expense; the sheriffs and peace officers nurse their official dignities in idleness. The year 1897 is the last covered by statistics: then reports were received from 200 towns throughout the State, showing but 950 convictions for all crimes and misdemeanors during the entire year, more



Photograph by Dellinger.

A "BUNCH" OF CATTLE ON THE "RANGE" IN THE SAND HILLS.

[Pond formed from overflow of wind-mill tank.]

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than half of the number being upon charges of vagrancy and such minor offences. In 60 out of the 200 towns there were no convictions whatever. This record excludes the two large cities of the State, Omaha and Lincoln. The record of crime upon the farms is practically nil. This is not so much a matter of moral training or tradition as of environment. Nature sets moral safeguards about those who are near to her. Honesty and orderliness are not the result of precept, but of right conditions of life. While the man is honestly at work in his field, there is no incentive to crime. He is an orderly citizen, not as the result of knowledge and observance of civic law, but from primary instinct.

Illiteracy also is lower in Nebraska than in any other of the States. When the State was admitted to the Union, the enabling act provided for the reservation of one-sixteenth of the public land as a basis for a permanent school fund, so that the burden of maintaining the schools rests lightly upon the people. In proportion to population, Nebraska expends for educational purposes a sum twice as great as that expended by Massachusetts; and in proportion to population, Nebraska has but one-half the number of illiterates to be found in Massachusetts. In the practical administration of educational affairs, Nebraska rather overdoes it; for we have 6 universities, 29 colleges, and 17 academies, a total of 52,— one such institution for each 7000 children of school age. There are, in addition, 200 high schools. The income from the permanent school fund is so apportioned that each district, even the poorest and most isolated, can have the benefit of at least one term of school in each year, paying no tax therefor.

But the condition of a people with regard to illiteracy is not a very profound measurement of the value of an educational system, though it is the accepted fashion when a proud citizen grows boastful. Mere ability to read and write is all that is necessary to keep down illiteracy. A good school system ought to nourish the man's native capacity for wise usefulness in his relations with the world. It is only just to say that Nebraska has not yet had time to experience to the full the effect of home-made intellectual training. The people are only now feeling the calm assurance of industrial poise which must necessarily precede social poise. So far as equipment and means of education are concerned, we have every reason to be confident; the temper of the people must accomplish the rest.

THE EXPANSIVE VIEW OF LAND AND LIFE

Considering her immense natural wealth, it must be owned that Nebraska has made a surprisingly inadequate use of opportunities. It has been rather a hand-to-mouth life, an almost literal obedience of the admonition to take no thought for the morrow. In the midst of plenty we have suffered the pains of improvidence. We have been content to sell outright each year's crop as it was harvested, and have made use of every aid to put this policy into more extensive practice.

The very bigness of things was to a great degree responsible for this. It is said that landscape has a subtle but sure influence upon character and mood; and our behavior has been upon the wide dead-level scale of our surroundings. In the bright lexicon of our industrial youth there has been almost no word but millions. We have heard so constantly of millions of acres, millions of bushels, millions of dollars; and there has been in the word a glitter that has hypnotized us, so that we have almost lost the power to take a million to pieces and to see how it is made. We have been likely to forget that wealth does not consist in millions alone, but rather in the significance of the smallest fraction of a million. Our unit of land measurement is not the acre, but the quarter-section; and when one gets a quarter-section, he grows ambitious to own a square mile. The average size of Nebraska farms is one hundred and ninety acres; and, as may be supposed, we know nothing of the practice of intensive agriculture.

Fifteen years ago there began a "boom" exactly in keeping with this dominant humor of the people; land values in almost all parts of the State were set according to the measure of an illusory assurance; and then began, in the largest sense, our career as borrowers of money and makers of mortgages. A "boom" is almost invariably an unfortunate experience for a new community; ours was no exception. It was easy to borrow money in those days, and the loans were based upon

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Photograph by Cross.

THESE ARE NOT STONES, THEY ARE POTATOES.

land values that had no substantial foundation. Experience had not furnished data sufficient for a rational scale of values; instead of experience we had an ecstatic confidence in our resources and abilities. That confidence will be justified by and by; but in 1885 it was not a substantial asset. Most of the borrowed money came from the East, and was lent at high rates of interest.

The Eastern lenders were not altogether innocent; they should have remembered that there is no man so ready to pledge extravagant interest as one who is oversanguine of his ability to pay. Perhaps there were those among the borrowers who were even a little careless about future payment; the redemption of a five-year pledge appears to some like a very remote contingency. For the most part, however, we meant to pay our debts like honest men. But in the meantime the boom collapsed, as booms will, and some of the worst-affected communities were left in a condition very like economic *rigor mortis*.

The effects are patent upon the records today. In 1887, eighty per cent of the farmers of Nebraska owned their farms; while in 1897 but sixty per cent were owners, in consequence of foreclosure of the ubiquitous farm mortgage. There is no fear but that this will be readjusted in due time. It is a condition not likely to occur again. We know better now; but we had to have our heads smartly bumped before we grew wise. In comparison with "boom times," the life of to-day is devoid of excitement, rather dull and monotonous; but it is certainly saner and safer.

This is a question that has been recurring to our people again and again in these later years: What does it profit a man to grow corn, and then to have no voice in the determination of its market price? That is a question which rises in every farmer's mind, so long as he produces the world's great staples. In that particular, an agricultural State is at a theoretical disadvantage as compared with a manufacturing State. Nebraska has nothing to say concerning the selling price of its main crops; and, having nothing but its crops, it may be said to lack commercial independence. Farmers and producers of all raw material share in this condition. Proximity to the world markets is an important factor in the prosperity of this class of producers.

There is a fine sound in the saying that the corn-crop of one year will be one-quarter of a billion bushels; but look at the lot of the individual grower and seller. In the year 1897 the cost of producing corn, ready for

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market, was $4.20 per acre; the average yield was 32 bushels per acre; the average cost per bushel, 13 cents. This corn brought the farmer 18 cents, representing a net profit of 5 cents per bushel, or $1.60 per acre, exclusive of rent of land or interest on capital. This is verily almost like the case of the peddler who lost money on each individual sale, but made his profits by doing a big business.

THE QUARREL WITH THE RAILROADS

Nebraska is far removed from the world markets, and the question of the transportation of products is one of the greatest administrative puzzles of to-day. For many years our corn and wheat went to Chicago and thence to New York, and there was no help for it; but that is changing. The whole West awoke to the fact that the Gulf ports are much nearer than the Atlantic seaboards, — from Omaha the proportion is as 9 to 15. North-and-south railways entered into strong competition with the east-and-west lines; deep harbors were constructed in the Gulf; Port Arthur rose out of the tide-water; and now Chicago gets comparatively little of the prairie corn. New Orleans has become the greatest of the corn-exporting ports. Even Illinois sends its crop to the south. And then, every Western man whose days are perplexed by these thoughts has his dreams filled with the Nicaragua Canal. The East can hardly understand the importance of this. Every Western industry is to be vitally affected by that canal. It must come.

The individual farmer with corn to sell sustains no personal relations with the market; his relations are wholly second-hand, through the boards of trade, the railroads, and the elevator companies. There are hundreds of grain elevators in the towns along the railways, and the ownership of these is centralized in a few large companies, each of which has traffic agreements with one or another railway. The farmer is forced to sell to the elevators, if he sells at all; and the price he gets is the current market quotation less the tariff rate of freight and elevator charges. The public does not know what freight rates are given to the elevator companies; but they are such as to give control of the situation. Of course, the farmer who meditates independent shipment of his own grain can get a "rate" upon application; but it is a prohibitive rate, as compared with those given the elevators. No relief from the burden of this system has ever been secured, by operation of law or otherwise; every effort has resulted in failure. The people of the East are inclined to wonder that the Western farmer looks upon the railroad as in some sense his enemy and hostile to his interests; but this is the reason. Nebraskans are only human. Doubtless they have unduly magnified the extent of their injury, so that they are in a measure inappreciative of the great service of the railroads. Every evil of the system will be righted in time. As the matter now stands, each railway system has almost exclusive control of certain territory, with almost full power to fix arbitrary rates, but as the railways are extended and brought into competition with one another, rates will be lowered, in obedience to a law that is mightier than any legislative enactment, and more imperative than any decree of a judicial tribunal. Nebraska, Kansas, Iowa, Illinois, and Northern Missouri produce more than one-third of the total corn-crop of the world. It is not to be supposed that the question of freight-rates can permanently isolate this product. This condition exists with reference to all products save those marketed at home, and to almost every part of the prairie country.

The difficulty was in some measure obviated in Nebraska when the people began to feed their surplus corn to cattle and hogs; for one carload of fattened hogs represents five carloads of corn. There is as yet no centralization of the stock-shipping interest, and the market is near at hand, in South Omaha and Kansas City.

THE POLITICAL REMEDIES PROPOSED

The Labor Commissioner of Nebraska recently sent broadcast to the people of the State a request for a candid expression of opinion concerning the manner of bringing to the farmer the greatest benefit of his work. There were received in reply 1140 letters, 940 of which declared that relief from present conditions must be purely political, in the narrowest sense; 518 of the 940 ask for financial legislation; 71 recommend "doing away" with the trusts; 33 want lower rates

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of interest; 26 would have legislation to prevent "board of trade gambling"; 63 advocate government ownership of railroads. As against these in tenor, one writer suggested that "the farmer stop buying and raise everything possible himself"; one counselled the better training of the farmer in scientific methods; and three would have the farmer practise greater economy and frugality in the administration of his affairs.

The prairie man has an inexplicable faith in politics and in legislation, as being able to make over society to suit the convictions of the party in power. He would hardly need to be persuaded that the most skilful craftsman cannot with greatest industry fashion a silk purse from a pig's ear; but he is not quite sure that it cannot be accomplished by fiat of law. So great is his faith that he expects to have it said, "Be it unto thee even as thou wilt." One would not be much surprised by the introduction into the legislature of a bill to prohibit the rusting of neglected farm machinery. Himself so law-abiding, the man expects great things of law. Politics is not the mere plaything of an idle hour, designed "to fill up the vacancies of attention and lessen the tediousness of time"; it is a very serious business. This is not strange, when we consider the great need for change in the man's economic relations, and his past failure to get relief.

MEANING OF AGRICULTURAL DISCONTENT

To the Eastern mind, this Western political movement usually signifies nothing more than a casual vagary; but it is in fact a conscientious attempt at a declaration of industrial independence, and it has become a serious threat against the political entity of the nation. It will not do to dismiss it lightly. The Western man is as faithful as any to the idea that we ought to be one and inseparable; but he cannot be persuaded that he ought not to have a share in the benefits of such a union. As the matter stands, the Western agriculturist feels that he is bearing his full portion of the burden of the national policy, while he is left to adjust for himself the conditions adverse to his work. There are those who think of the leaders of this movement as instigators of social disorder, — mere adepts in the black art of demagogics. Nebraska has had several years of experience with their administration of affairs of State, and is rather better off than otherwise.

The greatest danger is that such extreme earnestness in politics is likely to make the man forget that the highest functions of an industrial society are altogether extra-political, extra-legislative. Nebraskans have neglected, in large measure, the remedies that lie ready to their hand.

Even in compelling, by politics or otherwise, a profitable market for its surplus products, the State would not make the fullest measure of progress. The good Abbot Samson urged that there are but two ways of paying debt and making wealth: increase of industry in raising income, and increase of thrift in laying it by. Why should Nebraska export wheat and import flour? Why should hides and wool be exported, while shoes, textile fabrics, and clothing are imported? Why should we send abroad any raw material which we must then buy back again as manufactures? That is exactly what Nebraska has been doing from the first. And the Nebraskan "he pays the freight," both ways. That is always the fate of the mere maker of raw material. On the face of it, that looks like a poor policy. Abbot Samson said again that a man can learn to do anything, from making shoes to decreeing judgments and governing communities. We are cock-sure of our ability to judge and to govern; but we seem to be doubtful of our ability to make shoes. We have packing-houses, beet-sugar factories, and dairies; but in all the State there is no such thing as a "factory town."

THE TOWN AS A PARASITE

The average prairie town is an incubus rather than an aid to progress. The population of Nebraska is about equally divided between the town and the farm, but the burden of support rests almost entirely upon the farmer. To speak strictly, the towns are unproductive; they are merely market stations and supply depots; they could not exist save by the process of sucking the middleman's profit from the commodities which pass through their hands; they add practically nothing to wealth. There is no very good reason to be given for this, except to

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say that there has not been time to mend so palpable a fault. It must be mended; until it is done, the towns will have no real stability, no sufficient excuse to give for their existence. The typical country town of the prairies consists of a railway station, a grain elevator (whose operator is commonly a dealer in fuel, lumber, and farm machinery), two or three "stores" of general merchandise, a saloon or two, and a varying number of poverty-stricken mission churches. Almost nowhere is there to be seen the smoke from the chimneys of those who are making things. There are far too many of such towns, and they are nearly all too large for the purpose they serve. How the surplus people get along is something of a mystery; but railway station, store, and saloon almost invariably shelter the "gang" of listless sons of Micawber, — men whose every full-blooded inclination has grown anæmic. These towns ought to be set to work.

Most of the towns of that class are survivals of that lamentable "boom time," when ordinary prudence was superseded by a mad pride of size and a lust of strength. Then the passion for town-building took hold on us; the railroads encouraged us in it, and in hundreds of places the prairie was checkered with plat-lines, marking the sites of new-born hamlets, every one of which was a potential metropolis. Of course there was no progress in that, except in the sense in which a boy may be said to progress when he is merely outgrowing his trousers. There was no good in the overgrowth, and it was inevitably drained away, in larger part. According to the measurement of statistics, these towns have suffered a decline; but according to the measurement of reason, they have been benefited by that very numerical loss. Most of them would be still thriftier, if they could get rid of one-half or one-third of their present population.

In view of the idleness of so many townsmen, the wages of labor are higher in Nebraska than in most places where manufacturing is the leading activity. An officer of the State said in a recent official report that "the lot of the average wage-worker (in Nebraska) is pretty generally a struggle for but a mere existence"; but the figures given in the report do not sustain this generalization. The average day's wage for all classes of labor, skilled and unskilled, including that of children and farm hands, is $1.86; the average number of days employed during the year (1897), 223; the average yearly earning, $414.78. As compared with the earning capacity of the average worker in the Eastern factory town, the balance is strongly in favor of the prairies.

THE FUTURE OF THE AGRICULTURAL STATE

Prophecy is an uncertain business; but I cannot resist saying that our surest manner of development hereafter will be not in the exploitation of the "boundless resource" idea, but in the conservation of waste energy and opportunity. We are prodigal wasters, and we have been led into it by that very thought of illimitable natural riches upon which we can always draw. Our wastes are those of reckless sons of a rich house. I know a German market gardener, who within the past ten years has placed himself in independent circumstances by intensive cultivation of four acres, while his nearest neighbor, who cultivates 280 acres of corn in the orthodox prairie fashion, is perennially "hard-up." The land that is suffered to go to waste on the big farm would sustain in plenty a dozen men like the German. When we shall have learned to practise intensive agriculture, and to utilize our raw materials in the home-manufacture of at least such articles as we now buy abroad, then we shall read our title clear.

There is one sure thing about the wealth of Nebraska, or any other agricultural State: it is legitimate. There is nothing dishonest in a cornfield; and the worker borrows his dominant mood from his surroundings. It is a mood of simplicity and uprightness, and all that the man does is ruled thereby. Colossal private fortunes do not spring up in a night; but a comfortable competence may be surely secured by patient, persevering toil. It is a busy life, but a placid one. Nobody would reasonably expect exciting or dramatic things to happen on these prairies to-day: we are not river-burners; but river-burning is not very profitable. Our life is merely sane and wholesome; and that is the surest foundation for the accomplishment of great ends.

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THE LAW OF PRESIDENTIAL CHANCES

THE STRANGE ACCIDENTS IN THE POLITICAL LOTTERY WHEREBY GREAT MEN FAILED: CLAY, CALHOUN, WEBSTER, SEWARD, TILDEN; AND WHEREBY LESSER MEN SUCCEEDED: TYLER, POLK, PIERCE, JOHNSON, HAYES — THE KIND OF MAN MOST LIKELY TO WIN

ACCIDENTS, circumstances beyond human control, and unlooked-for events have done more to seat most of our Presidents and to bar abler aspirants than all calculable influences and qualities. Hardly one of the great leaders who had already left his impress on our legislation and our public policy has been elected since the earlier days of the Constitution. With the exception of Jackson, W. H. Harrison, and Grant, none of the generally popular men has succeeded, and of these Harrison's was the popularity of an idea, and Grant's of a military hero. In fact, the history of nominating conventions and of elections shows that a man who has won only a moderate degree of fame and then waited for some happy turn of fortune has had by far the best chance of success.

To go back as far as the first election of Jefferson — Burr and Jefferson received an equal number of electoral votes. Then, of course, the man who received the largest number of electoral votes became President, and the man who received the next largest number, Vice-President. There was no choice in the Electoral College, and the election was thrown into the House of Representatives, where doubtless Jefferson would have failed of the first place had not an unexpected influence been brought to bear upon the contest. Hamilton, leader of the Federalists, and the last man from whom Jefferson could hope for help, preferred Jefferson as the less of two evils. Hamilton's purpose was not accomplished by directly securing Federalist votes for Jefferson, but the Federalist representatives from Vermont and the two from Maryland voted blank ballots, so that in the final ballot it appeared that ten States, a majority of those voting, had given Jefferson their ballots. There is no stranger, more dramatic episode in our political history than that Jefferson, the founder of the Republican party, as the Democratic party was then called, owed it to Hamilton, who was the personification of all that he opposed in political theory, that he succeeded John Adams in the Presidency.

CLAY'S FIRST FAILURE

Madison and Monroe were, in succession, the predetermined heirs to Jefferson's political estate; but John Quincy Adams, who followed Monroe, was in some respects an accidental President. There were four candidates for the office in 1824, — Adams, Jackson, Crawford, and Clay. Jackson had a majority of the popular vote; but there being no choice in the Electoral College the election again went to the House, which, under the Constitution, was to select one from the three candidates who had received the three largest votes. These were Adams, Jackson, and Crawford. Adams was the final choice of the House, but he owed his election to what seemed at the moment a comparatively trifling matter. The State Legislatures at that time selected the presidential electors for the States. By what Clay's friends termed outright political dishonesty, the Legislature of Louisiana seized or made an opportunity during the absence of Clay's supporters from that body to vote for the presidential electors. These electors voted in the College, three for Jackson and two for Adams, whereas, had the election taken place when Clay's friends were present, the five electors would all have voted for Clay, and their votes in the Electoral College would have made Clay's electoral vote greater than Crawford's. He, then, instead of Crawford, would have been a candidate before the House; and in that event it is quite certain that Clay would have been elected President by the House, of which he was at that time easily the most popular

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member. Thus robbed of success, the friends of Clay in the House, acting upon the advice of their leader, gave their support to Adams, and he was elected.

HOW CALHOUN MISSED THE PRIZE

It is not too much to say that death alone could have prevented the election of Jackson to the Presidency in 1828, or his reelection in 1832. But an unlooked-for incident, or combination of incidents, played a decisive part in the election of Van Buren in 1836. When Jackson first took office two men were prominent as his possible successors. These were Clay and Calhoun. In fact, when Jackson was elected, it was understood that he should serve a single term, and that Calhoun, who, in 1824 and again in 1828, had been elected Vice-President almost without opposition, should become his successor. But this plan was never carried out. Crawford, who had not ceased to resent his defeat in 1824, for which, with or without reason, he held Calhoun chiefly responsible, now wrote to Van Buren, Jackson's Secretary of State, declaring that in Monroe's cabinet, of which both he and Calhoun had been members, Calhoun had proposed that Jackson's conduct in the Florida war (during which Jackson had, in fact, carried things with a high hand, as was his custom) be made the subject of inquiry, and that if the charges against him were proved, he be punished with severity. Van Buren showed this letter to his chief, and the friendship of Jackson for Calhoun changed at once to implacable enmity. From that day Calhoun was doomed as Jackson's successor.

Calhoun, of course, charged his loss of favor to Van Buren; and when Jackson sent Van Buren's name to the Senate as Minister to Great Britain, Calhoun, with Webster and Clay, set about defeating the nomination.

He was rejected in the end, but with a result unforeseen, save by one astute senator, who said, "You have broken a minister, but you have elected a Vice-President." His rejection did all that, and more, for it fixed in Jackson the determination to make Van Buren his successor in the Presidency. This resolve became plain when, in 1832, Van Buren was nominated and elected Vice-President. Four years later he succeeded Jackson in the chief magistracy.

Van Buren was again the candidate of his party in 1840, but, what with the panic of 1837 and the hard times that followed it, Whig success in that campaign was from the first a foregone conclusion. Again accident came into play to make a President. The sentiment of his party was decidedly in favor of the nomination of Clay, and he fully expected the honor; but half a dozen influential Whigs in New York and Pennsylvania deemed him unavailable because the anti-Masons made up a large portion of the opposition, and Clay was a Royal Arch Mason.

GENERAL SCOTT'S FATAL LETTER

With Clay out of the field, the choice of the convention was narrowed down to General Harrison and General Scott, and the Virginia delegation was in a position to decide between them. But Scott had written a letter to Francis Granger of New York, in which he evidently sought to conciliate the antislavery sentiment of that State. Granger showed it to Thaddeus Stevens, and permitted Stevens to use it in his own way. The headquarters of the Virginia delegation, being the centre of attraction, were always crowded, and Stevens called there along with many others. Before leaving, he dropped Scott's letter on the floor, and it was soon discovered and its contents made known to the Virginians. That letter caused the Virginians to support Harrison and to reject Scott. The nomination was equivalent to an election.

TYLER INSTEAD OF WEBSTER WON

Harrison's candidacy was as dramatic in its sequel as in its inception. Before the Whig convention met, Thurlow Weed urged Webster to take the nomination for Vice-President, but he rejected the suggestion with scorn. After Harrison's nomination Clay's friends were urged to name the candidate for Vice-President. They first offered the nomination to Watkins Leigh, of Virginia, who declined it. Then it was tendered to Nathaniel P. Tallmadge. Had he not put it aside, New York would have had three Presidents from the Vice-President's chair. Next, Samuel Southard, of New Jersey, had the offer of the nomination. He, too, refused it. At last some one remembered that John Tyler, of Virginia, had shed tears at Clay's defeat. As a result, Tyler was

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named for Vice-President, the delegates feeling that so devoted a follower of Clay on the ticket would go far to heal the wounds that the convention had caused. Thus by these curious combinations of accidents, for which he was in no way responsible, Tyler, through the death of Harrison, became President, after four men had declined the chance.

Van Buren should have been nominated by the Democratic convention in 1844. He had a clear majority, but the adoption of the two-thirds rule deprived him of this advantage over his rivals, and prolonged balloting produced much bad feeling between his supporters and the supporters of his chief competitor, Cass. On the eighth ballot forty-four delegates voted for James K. Polk, who up to that time had been mentioned only as a possible candidate for Vice-President; and on the succeeding ballot, he was unanimously nominated. Polk had been Speaker of the House, but he was not a man of any great national reputation. "The nomination," says Thomas H. Benton, "was a surprise and marvel to the country."

CLAY'S SECOND SLIP

Clay was nominated by acclamation by the Whigs, but again an untoward accident blocked his path to the White House. The great Kentuckian, at an earlier stage of his career, had given serious personal offence to James G. Birney. The latter was conspicuous as an Abolitionist, and there was some trifling strength in the so-called Abolition party in the North. In New York State there were a few thousand scattered Abolitionists, and they met in a convention and nominated Birney for the presidency. He did not wish to run, and the most intelligent of the Abolitionists were opposed to any organization; but there was at that time a general belief that Birney saw in his candidacy a chance to punish Clay. Birney therefore ran, and he had such revenge as caused the Whig party to lose the Presidency, for his popular vote of 62,300 was sufficient to turn New York and Michigan to the Democrats.

The sequel proved that Clay's political sun had set; for in 1848, when it was almost certain that the Whig candidate would be elected, he was put aside for Taylor, one of the heroes of a war which the Whigs had denounced as a crime.

WEBSTER'S SECOND CHANCE

Webster, also, in 1848, missed his last opportunity to become President. Before the Whig convention met, Thurlow Weed again urged Webster to become the Whig candidate for Vice-President. Again he refused, and the nomination, after going begging, was finally given to Millard Fillmore. Taylor died soon after taking office, Fillmore became President, and Webster returned to Washington to serve him as Secretary of State, as he had similarly served the accidental Tyler twelve years before. In place of either of them he might have become President.

The unexpected befell in the Democratic convention of 1852. Cass, Buchanan, and Douglas were the leading candidates, but Cass's candidacy had the stigma of defeat; Buchanan lacked an attached personal following; and the envy and the personal hatreds caused by Douglas's brilliant career as a leader in the Senate prevented his nomination. There is little doubt that Daniel S. Dickinson, of New York, would have been nominated as a compromise candidate had he not peremptorily declined to allow his name to go before the convention, for the reason that he was pledged to Cass. Finally the Southern delegates said to the New Hampshire delegates that any New Hampshire Democrat upon whom they could agree would be supported by the South, and thus, after a protracted contest, Franklin Pierce was nominated. Pierce had been a soldier in the Mexican War and a member of the Senate, but was so little known beyond the borders of his own State that many Democrats had never heard his name. Scott, robbed of a nomination when he could have been elected twelve years before, was now made the standard-bearer of the Whigs. He met with one of the most overwhelming defeats on record, only four States voting for him in the Electoral College.

SEWARD'S DISAPPOINTMENT

In 1856 Buchanan, for many years an active aspirant for the office, was chosen President, but the year 1860 wrecked the long-cherished hopes of Douglas, John C. Breckinridge, and Seward. When the Republicans met in convention, the nomination of Seward seemed a foregone conclusion.

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But he had made a personal enemy of Horace Greeley, who was determined to defeat his nomination. As Greeley could not be chosen a delegate from New York, he appeared in the convention with the proxy of an Oregon member. He worked in season and out of season, undermining Seward's strength. Greeley's arguments and the declaration of Andrew G. Curtin, then candidate for governor of Pennsylvania, that he could not carry his State in the October election if Seward was nominated, drove enough delegates from the eminent New Yorker to prevent his nomination; and Lincoln was named in his stead.

BEN. BUTLER MIGHT HAVE BEEN PRESIDENT

No name but Lincoln's was presented to the Republican convention in 1864, and from the first his reëlection was never in serious doubt. But the abiding issue of that campaign, as the sequel proved, was the nomination and election of Andrew Johnson to the Vice-Presidency. Lincoln for good reasons preferred a War Democrat on the ticket with him, and his first selection was General Benjamin F. Butler. But Butler, when approached by an agent of the President, declined peremptorily to permit his name to be considered, and Johnson was finally selected as the most available man for the place. Butler refused because of his personal dislike of Lincoln. It was a costly refusal, for Johnson became President within a year.

Grant's nominations in 1868 and in 1872 were beyond the power of chance to prevent; but in 1876 the enmity of an angry man helped to defeat Blaine, the favorite of a majority of the members of his party, and brought about the unexpected nomination of Hayes. When Blaine was Speaker of the House of Representatives, James N. Tyner, a member of the House from Indiana, coveted the chairmanship of the committee on post offices and post roads. He asserted that Blaine promised him the place, and then, without warning, gave it to another. Facing the Speaker in his private room, he declared to Blaine that he should remember what he called his betrayal when Blaine should become a candidate, a year or two later, for the presidential nomination. Blaine laughed at him, it was then said; but Tyner, who had some influence in the politics of his State, was as good as his word. When in the Republican convention of 1876 it became apparent that Oliver P. Morton could not be nominated, the Indiana delegation decided to support Hayes, who up to that time had not been thought a probable candidate. Blaine's friends had counted upon Indiana when Morton was withdrawn; but Tyner turned them from Blaine to Hayes.

LATER ACCIDENTAL PRESIDENTS

By the Electoral Commission, whereby Hayes secured the presidential office, although Tilden received 250,000 majority of the popular vote, was completed the chain of unusual events whereby Hayes became President.

In 1880 Tilden was certainly the choice of his party. But in the confusion of the Democratic convention — confusion caused by a letter from Tilden expressing the wish that the convention should not renominate him (which the convention took seriously, however it was meant to be taken) — an eloquent speech by Daniel Dougherty, of Pennsylvania, caused the ill-starred nomination of Hancock. In the Republican convention Blaine, Sherman, and Grant were presented as candidates, but — Garfield was chosen. Had he kept the purpose that he once formed, — not to attend the convention, — there is little likelihood that he would have been nominated. The surprises since 1880 may perhaps be said to include the first nominations of both Cleveland and Harrison.

Among the accidental or unexpected Presidents in this incomplete review are Tyler, Polk, Pierce, Johnson, Hayes, Arthur; and among the men who clearly missed the Presidency by chance or an unexpected turn of events are Clay, Calhoun, Scott, Webster, Seward, and Tilden, not to mention Benjamin F. Butler.

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SHORT STORIES OF MEN WHO WORK

MAJOR-GENERAL ADNA ROMANZA CHAFFEE has been thirty-nine years a soldier. A stripling of nineteen, he left his father's Ohio farm in the summer of 1861 to enlist as a private in the Sixth United States Cavalry, and during the next two decades he had a hand in a great deal of hard and perilous fighting against Indians and won for himself the nickname of the "Sleuth Scout," because, meeting the Indian with his own weapons, he was never ambushed, and never defeated.

General Chaffee's diary of his Indian campaigns would make a volume of interest. One of its many thrilling chapters deals with the fight of the "Big Dry Wash" in the summer of 1882, cherished by cavalrymen as one of the most gallant known to their arm of the service. About 150 White Mountain Apaches, who had taken to the war-path, were on one side of a cañon in the Mogollon plateau. Chaffee, now a major, with a pursuing troop of the Sixth Cavalry, held the summit of a rocky hill commanding the entrance to the cañon. The battle went on for hours. Suddenly one of the scouts fell, some two-score yards from where Chaffee was standing. A second scout at Chaffee's elbow remarked that the fallen man was done for, but the major quickly saw that he was only wounded.

"Come along," said he, "and we'll fetch him in."

Then he threw himself flat on the ground and crawled toward the wounded soldier. The scout followed. Slowly and painfully Chaffee and his companion, in the face of a concentrated fire from all the Indians, worked their way to the wounded man, and half carried, half dragged him back within the lines.

The handful of troopers on the rock, thrilled with the deed that had been performed, forgot the task in hand, stopped fighting, and began to cheer. This made Chaffee furious, and he shouted at the top of his voice:

"Shut up that noise and go to shooting!"

Thus recalled to the work of fighting Indians, Chaffee's men again turned their attention to their carbines, and, relieved in the nick of time by two troops of the Third Cavalry, slowly they fought the foe to a standstill. The Apaches, almost to a man, were killed or captured. Chaffee was brevetted lieutenant-colonel for this day's work, and in 1897 the brevet became a commission.

His part in the Spanish War, in which he served as a brigadier-general of volunteers, is familiar to every newspaper reader. So is his more recent work in the Far East. Few officers who have risen from the ranks are genuinely popular with the enlisted man. But General Chaffee is an exception, and a score of incidents like that of the "Big Dry Wash" give the cue to his popularity.

Since May, 1899, he has been colonel of the Eighth Cavalry in the regular army. Should he be advanced to a regular brigadiership, he will, in the course of the next four years, become commanding general of the army.

A Good Story of McKinley and Hanna

A friend of President McKinley and Senator Hanna gives an interesting account of the birth and growth of the friendship between them. The two men, who had met only once before, found themselves lodged in the same room when they were delegates to the convention which finally nominated Garfield for President. Mr. Hanna favored Blaine. Mr. McKinley was a thick-and-thin supporter of Sherman. At one point a scheme was hatched whereby the convention was to be stampeded for Blaine. Its authors felt the need of telling Mr. Hanna at a very unusual hour, in order that he might be ready to aid them at the critical moment. They entered his room quietly, using the key of one of them who had a cot in the room occupied by both Mr. McKinley and Mr. Hanna. In the darkness they mistook McKinley for Hanna, and gently rousing him, poured into his ears the scope and purpose of their plot. They told him, with a wealth of detail, how Sherman was to be

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routed, and how, as a climax, the nomination was to go to Blaine "on a landslide."

"It's all very interesting, gentlemen," said McKinley when they had finished, "but you have made a mistake; I am a Sherman delegate. The Blaine delegate," pointing to the sleeping Hanna, "is over there."

But McKinley made no use of the Blaine story thus disclosed to him, and Hanna took careful note of his forbearing honesty.

The Republican convention of 1888 found McKinley again supporting Sherman. Sherman, however, was from the first doomed to defeat; and as the balloting progressed, talk sprang up of nominating McKinley himself. Then the New Jersey delegation went into caucus and decided to cast its vote for him. Ohio, it was given out, stood ready to substitute McKinley for Sherman, just as, four years before, she had switched from Sherman to Garfield. But at this point McKinley interposed with emphasis and vigor. He went to the New Jersey and the Ohio delegates, and forbade them to present his name.

"I came here for John Sherman," he said. "He is the choice of my State, whose people have commanded me to work and vote for him. It would be dishonorable to ignore this command. No delegate who would not cast reflection upon me shall cast a ballot for me. And if I am nominated, I will decline to run."

This conduct gave Mr. Hanna convincing proof of Mr. McKinley's honor. Their friendship grew; and one of these men is now, for the second time, giving all of his time and energy to securing the Presidency for the other.

Does City Life Enervate?

By Dr. A. E. Winship

The popular impression that most men who win noteworthy success are country-bred has become almost or quite a definite belief. It is taken for granted by social philosophers of this generation, and there has been great concern lest the increase of urban residence leave the next generation without strong men.

I have undertaken on a small scale to ascertain whether such a fear is warranted. I selected for study one thousand representative men whose success is assured. These were carefully chosen from professional, mercantile, and public life, — lawyers, clergymen, educators, journalists and literary men, financiers, managers of great enterprises, great merchants, and the like. Most of these men are now alive, and the rest died but recently.

Of these one thousand successful men, forty-eight are less than forty years of age, and forty-one are more than eighty. Very nearly one-half are between fifty-five and sixty-five. In classifying the places of rearing, cities of less than fifty thousand population are considered rural, except in cases where a minor city is very old and has been the chief city in a State for many years. Such a classification seems to be both comprehensive and representative, and, I think, gives a fair basis for judgment whether nearly all successful men are country bred.

Of these 1014 men, there are 138 professional men, 173 are in public life, and more than 700 are engaged in mercantile pursuits. Three hundred and fifteen of these had a college or university training. The results are as follows: Of 1014 successful men, 492 were country bred, 130 were of foreign birth, and 392 were born and bred in the cities. The majority of the professional men are city bred, while in mercantile and public life the countrymen predominate.

The cities, then, have supplied a much larger proportion of the successful men of to-day than our social philosophers have thought. When it is remembered that forty or fifty years ago — the time when most of these men were growing up — the population of the large cities was only about 12 per cent of the whole population of the nation, it becomes evident that the cities have supplied a very much larger percentage of successful men than the country. The 12 per cent of city population yielded 392 as against a yield of 492 by the 88 per cent of rural population.

The advantages offered by life in the cities, educational, commercial, professional, and social, give the fortunately born city boy a better start and a better equipment for his life's work than the country lad has. He learns to work more effectively because of the better organized machinery of life all about him, and the opportunities to cultivate any talent he may have are greater.

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AMONG THE WORLD'S WORKERS

THE PROSPERITY AND GROWTH OF THE COUNTRY AS SEEN IN REPRESENTATIVE CENTRES — CHICAGO, PITTSBURGH, CLEVELAND, ST. LOUIS, KANSAS CITY, BALTIMORE, AND ATLANTA — A NEW ERA OF ACTIVITY — EXTENSION OF FOREIGN TRADE — PROGRESS TOWARD COMMERCIAL SUPREMACY — THE INCREASE OF BANKS

[In this part of this magazine a general report of the most important events and tendencies in industry and in the professions will be made at first hand. Much of this space is given this month to a general survey of the changes of a decade in a few representative cities, apropos of the census reports of population.]

THE growth of our cities during the last decade has taken the United States out of the list of nations in which agriculture predominates, and put it in the list of those in which manufacturing is the leading interest. It has been a steady and healthful growth; and the rate of increase in population of the most prosperous has been approximately one-third. Fully one-third of our people now live in cities and towns of 8000 or more. The increase has been caused by natural forces — the growth of manufactures and commerce. It has come partly, too, by immigration, which once went to the farms, but now goes more to the cities.

The cities that have grown with the greatest rapidity are those in the manufacturing parts of the Eastern States, and those on the Great Lakes. The river cities show a slower growth. The railroad has come to be more important than the inland waterway. South of Norfolk the coast cities are making only moderate progress, but north of Virginia the seaport cities have all grown. Wherever an increase is reported, it reflects conditions which are likely to be permanent. No "boom" towns or cities now show in the returns. The relative position of our chief cities, so even and regular has been the growth in population, is substantially identical with what it was ten years ago; yet almost every increase in wealth and numbers has been attended by features of an individual and unusual character. The most extraordinary progress has been made in the chain of cities about the Great Lakes.

Correspondents in a few interesting cities in different sections of the Union, have been asked to point out briefly the most important changes that the census does not show, and their letters follow:

The Higher Life of Chicago

What will perhaps be regarded hereafter as the most notable event in the history of Chicago during the last decade is the establishment and growth of its University. This institution, less than ten years old, has now property in buildings, grounds, and endowment of over $11,000,000, more than three-fourths of which it owes to the beneficence of Mr. John D. Rockefeller. Even this vast amount, it is hoped, is but the beginning of his work for the University, whereby he will make this institution his permanent and abiding monument through the coming ages. The University has 160 members in its faculty and over 1800 students; its University work proper is a special feature, and its summer school of 1000 students has representatives from the teachers in most of the colleges in the country, engaged in every department of post-graduate study.

Another line of Chicago's extraordinary growth is in the direction of what may be covered by the general term Art. Its Art Institute and Field Museum, similar in scope to the Metropolitan Museum in New York and the Boston Museum of Fine Arts, have collections which will compare favorably with any in the country, while the Art School, numbering in its various classes over 1600 students, is much larger and is more thorough in its work than any single school in America.

No institute of technology is better equipped or is doing better work than the Armour Institute, — also a child of the last decade.

Within the last ten years, too, over $32,000,000 have been expended in the drainage canal, which, when completed, should give to the city an unlimited supply of the purest water. It ranks with the wonders of the world as an achievement in engineering, especially in view of its forming a possible link in the shipping route from the Great Lakes to the Gulf of Mexico.

Another notable growth is the progress made by Chicago toward becoming the second financial centre of the nation. The increase of our national wealth in the last decade comes largely from the excess of our exports above our imports, and this excess is principally from the export of food products grown in the country tributary to Chicago. This city has thus received what would otherwise

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have been an undue proportion of such increased wealth. Ten years ago New York was the necessary centre of all large financial projects; now from the increased wealth of the country tributary to Chicago has arisen the large accumulation of capital necessary to handle projects of railway reorganization, industrial combinations, or colossal loans. The leading national bank with its capital of $5,000,000 has deposits of $66,000,000, and the largest trust company with a capital of $4,000,000 has deposits of $70,000,000. Ten years ago no bank or trust company in New York is believed to have had so much capital. By reason of these accumulations Chicago is to-day largely the financial centre for the country west of it, and is to it a commercial metropolitan capital.

Pittsburgh's Growing Greatness

The new census gives Pittsburgh 321,616 population, and places it eleventh on the list of American cities. Its own clearing-house proves that its natural boundaries are those of the county; and in this view the city comprises a total population for Allegheny County, which is the "Greater Pittsburgh," of 772,899, making her fifth on the list, with only New York, Chicago, Philadelphia, and Boston ahead. The tax valuation of property is 554 millions. Pittsburgh's share is more than one-half of the whole production in the United States of steel, coke, oil, plate-glass, glassware, harness leather, and iron pipe. It mines nearly one-fourth of the bituminous coal of the United States. It has 2500 mills and factories, with an annual product worth 250 millions and a pay-roll of 75 millions of dollars.

But while these surpassing industries have given Pittsburgh wealth, population, supremacy, and power, commercial materialism is not the *ultima thule* of the people. In the past ten years the advance in the higher life has been as extraordinary as the progressive industrial development. In that time has been reared a court-house which is the crowning architectural triumph of H. H. Richardson. Rapid transit has opened up an entirely new residential district, the east end, containing thousands of beautiful homes, and churches, and school-houses in nearly every block. Two great parks, one the gift of Mrs. Mary Schenley, embracing 400 acres in the very heart of the city, the other purchased by the city corporation, have been developed at a cost of more than a quarter of a million dollars annually.

There is a lack of proportion in the fact, the inequity of which will soon be corrected through a rapidly growing public spirit,— but it is true at the present moment that five citizens of Pittsburgh have given more for the intellectual expansion of the people than all the rest of the prospering population combined. William Thaw endowed the Western University. Mrs. Schenley gave the great park which bears her name. Henry Phipps erected the spacious conservatory in which whole acres of plants and flowers are grown. Christopher L. Magee built and stocked the zoölogical garden which is a source of wonder and delight to the whole population. And then the prince of modern philanthropists, Andrew Carnegie, has established some fifteen libraries in the greater Pittsburgh limits at a cost that is approaching twelve millions. His greatest benefaction, the Carnegie Institute, comprising library, art galleries, music hall, and museum, costing originally one million, has just received his indorsement for an enlargement to cost four millions more.

Amounts are stated because money is the most graphic measure of purpose. These art galleries are already noted for their annual art exhibitions. The library is constantly growing, and has seven flourishing branches. The music hall is the home of the Art Society and the University Extension, and the museum has won a high place for original work.

The Expanding Activities of St. Louis

St. Louis' increase of 27.33 per cent in inhabitants since 1890 has been far exceeded by the expansion in most of its interests and activities. Its bank clearances have grown about 40 per cent. The $228,000,000, which represented the output of the city's manufactures in the aggregate in 1890, will give place to figures which promise to be at least 50 per cent higher for 1900. A still larger increase has been made by the merchandise handled by the railroads centring here; while trade by the river is also increasing, though its general tendency, owing to railroad competition, was downward in recent years. A gain of fully 100 per cent has been made in the shoe sales of the city's manufacturers and jobbers, while the expansion in the manufacture of street cars has been at a still higher ratio. St. Louis built street cars are found in almost every important city on the globe.

The St. Louis Transit Company has 340, and the St. Louis and Suburban Company 101, miles of street track, a total of 441 miles of street railway in operation in the city, representing an aggregate capital stock of over $90,000,000. Practically, the whole of this electric traction has been created since 1890. In proportion to population, St. Louis has a larger street car mileage than any other city, and its transfer system enables a person to ride farther on a single fare than anywhere else in the country.

In the extent and excellence of its educational institutions, St. Louis holds a prominent place among the country's cities, and the exhibit of the public schools at the Paris Exposition of 1900 has

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obtained one of the five grand prizes given to the world in this class of displays.

Among the city's universities, the Washington, the St. Louis, and the Forest Park (for women) have a wide reputation. Gifts aggregating $4,000,000, chiefly from Mr. Samuel Cupples and Mr. Robert S. Brookings, have been made to Washington University in the past twelve months. Its new home, west of Forest Park, will be ready for occupancy in the fall of 1901, and it will have as attractive a situation, and as complete a general equipment, as any educational institution in the United States.

Advancement in Kansas City

Close observers of Kansas City (in Missouri and Kansas) have noticed certain changes in the past ten years far more gratifying and important than the mere increase in population. The general tone of the town has improved almost beyond comprehension. Good citizenship is now the rule and not the exception. It seems contagious. There are no better people in the town now than there were in the roughest frontier days, but there are more of them. The physical improvements made are in line with the foregoing. A remarkable assembly hall, capable of holding twenty-five thousand people, has been built by popular subscription. A splendid new public library and historical museum building has come into existence, and better yet, into universal use. A score of new churches, schoolhouses, and hospitals have been built. The city's new manual training school probably has no superior in the country. The new government building to replace the old one is far handsomer than most of the government buildings elsewhere. Numerous city and country clubs have added greatly to the social charm of the city, and large numbers of fine residences have been built.

The city's street railway system has been remodelled, the newspapers are brighter, cleaner, and better than ever, and the hotels are conducted in a manner which years ago had not been heard of in the West. The park system of the city has been amplified into one of the largest in the whole country. The school attendance has increased wonderfully. The sale of books, the patronage of libraries, the multiplication of literary organizations, the disposition to vote for good government, — these signs of advancement are abundantly present.

Cleveland and the Lake Trade

Cleveland, during the past decade, has witnessed the consummation of those dreams of far-sighted business men, by which the iron mines of Lake Superior have been linked with the coal and coke fields of Pennsylvania, and the consequent stupendous development of the iron and steel industry. It has seen the construction of ore and coal railroads from Pittsburgh to Lake Erie; immense docks designed almost exclusively for this purpose; and cavernous iron steamships as large as ocean liners for the transportation of ore, which are loaded like grain, by the law of gravitation, and unloaded by dredging scoops, almost all of which is done through delicate machinery, rather than by manual labor. In this decade Cleveland has become the centre of the steel ship-building industry in America. The cargo tonnage which passes through Sault Ste. Marie River is three times as great as the tonnage of the Suez Canal.

Cleveland is, in a sense, a political storm centre, and it has always contained a radical political element. Growing independence of party in State and local matters has been fostered in Cleveland during the past five years by a body of independent voters known as the Municipal Association, which, through the aid of publicity and the combined force of independents, has striven to secure better officials and promote reform legislation. In this respect the change of the past ten years has been remarkable; the next ten years give promise of being revolutionary. Cleveland's public school system is said to be unsurpassed. This is largely the development of the past decade.

Baltimore's Civic and Industrial Growth

Were Baltimore to be judged only by the increase in its population from 434,000 in 1890 to 508,000 in 1900, it would necessarily rank as being less progressive than some of its rivals; but Baltimore must be judged not by them, but by what has been accomplished in business advancement during the past ten years.

Ten years ago civic life was at a low ebb, and the people of Baltimore displayed comparatively small interest in the question of good municipal management. To-day, it probably leads the country in the activity displayed by its leading business men in municipal affairs. The independent vote now holds the balance of power, and if one party fails to give good government, it is promptly defeated by the power of the independent vote. The change is radical and must be far-reaching.

Turning from municipal government to business interests, the advancement of the last decade has been far beyond the increase in population. Ten years ago the street car system of Baltimore was operated by horses. To-day, it has one of the most complete electric street car systems in the world.

Prior to 1890 Baltimore had a very limited capital in financial institutions, other than in its national banks. Since then it has developed trust com-

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panies, which have largely financed many great undertakings in the South as well as in other sections, and to these has added bonding companies, taking the place of private bondsmen, until this city now ranks as the leading bonding-company centre of America. In 1887 far-seeing capitalists of Pennsylvania, looking to the future in iron and steel, commenced the building at Baltimore of one of the world's great steel plants, with a view to utilizing ores from Cuba, Spain, and elsewhere in the manufacture of steel rails and in the building of ships, expecting that a tidewater location would give them advantages over interior points. In 1890 this enterprise, hardly under way, might have been classed as an experiment. It now represents a capital of about $10,000,000, and finds a market in almost every foreign country for its steel rails. Even London street railway companies have been buyers of its rails, and thousands of tons of Maryland made rails are laid on the Trans-Siberian Railroad.

Atlanta the Energetic City of the South

Atlanta's industrial growth during the past decade has been even greater than its increase of population, which was from 65,533 in 1890 to 89,872 in 1900, or 37.14 per cent, the largest increase shown by any Southern city, except Birmingham, Ala. This growth has been on various lines, and in the diversity of the city's manufactures is found one of the main elements of its strength. It has cotton mills, of course; three large ones already in operation and four smaller ones almost complete. But besides the products of these mills Atlanta manufactures on a large scale the various commercial products of cottonseed, cotton gins, agricultural machinery, furniture, wooden and paper boxes, clothing, shoes, wagons, saws, commercial fertilizers, soap, flour, candies, crackers, cigars, and many other articles. A majority of these manufactories have been established since 1890.

The intellectual growth of Atlanta during the past decade is shown by the marked improvement of the public schools and the greatly increased attendance, and the establishment and prosperity of a number of private schools of high grade for both young men and young women. About a year ago Atlanta was included in the large list of Mr. Andrew Carnegie's beneficiaries. He donated $125,000 for the establishment of a free library there on condition that the city should give $5000 a year toward its support. This condition has been complied with, and the Young Men's Library, a flourishing institution with assets worth at least $100,000, has been merged into the Carnegie Library. A beautiful marble home of classic design is being erected for this institution and will be opened next spring. In works of philanthropy and charity Atlanta has made a good record during the century's last decade. The Grady Hospital, erected as a monument to Henry W. Grady, is well equipped in every way and has been a blessing to the city. St. Joseph's Infirmary, the Catholic hospital, has been greatly enlarged and improved. Four large private sanitariums have been established, and their proprietors have ennobled themselves by receiving and ministering to many charity patients.

Lessening the Ocean Record

The recent performances of the *Deutschland*, which cut down the passage from Cherbourg to New York to five days twelve hours and twenty-eight minutes, maintaining an average speed of 23.2 knots per hour, once more serves to emphasize what has been the most striking development in marine engineering during the past dozen years — the gradual lowering of the speed record of ocean craft. First the *Paris*, in 1889, broke the record, with an average of twenty knots. Three years later came the *Campania*, making 21.85 knots, but speedily giving way to the great *Kaiser Wilhelm*, which made 22.79 knots per hour. For the moment the *Deutschland* holds the record, but already another ship is building in a German yard which is expected to reduce her time. Indeed, with the steady increase in tonnage and horse power, and the proposed substitution of oil for coal, the advent of a ship that will cross the Atlantic in four days may be set down as an early probability. Builders and owners, however, are of divided mind whether this increase in speed is worth all that it costs. German steamship owners, thanks to the liberal subsidy system of their government, are enabled to strive steadily for fleeter ships, but their English competitors seem inclined to call a halt in the building of ships in which comfort and economy are sacrificed to the one quality of speed.

The trial trips of the new battleship *Alabama* and the torpedo boat *Bagley* prove that in this matter American builders have nothing to fear from their foreign competitors. Substantial cheer for the same class is found in the Bureau of Navigation's official returns for the fiscal year ending June 30, 1900, which show that during the period named 1446 vessels, of a little less than 400,000 gross tons, were built and documented in the United States, a record which has been exceeded only twice in forty-four years. But of the score of ocean steamships constructed during the year all save one were designed for traffic reserved by law to American vessels. Another significant fact revealed by these returns is that the greatest shipbuilding activity is on the Great Lakes, where during the year ninety steel vessels were built and documented. In no previous

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twelvemonth has this record been exceeded, and the twenty-five large vessels now under contract in the several lake yards promise steady employment during the coming winter to upward of 5000 men. In a word, the carrying trade of the Lakes, which is in American hands and carried under the American flag, shows healthy and constant expansion.

American Steel Leading the World

Signal proof of the growing foreign market for American steel is supplied by the Berlin (Conn.) Iron Works, from which a large and complete foundry has lately been shipped to the German city of the same name. The Germans are expert and economical makers of steel, and, in view of this fact, the layman is pretty sure to ask how Americans could manufacture such a heavy thing as an iron foundry, pay railway freight on it from the middle of Connecticut to a seaport, pay freight across the Atlantic, and then again further freight from Hamburg to Berlin, and yet compete successfully with German makers. This question is answered by the manager of the Berlin works, who attributes their success to close and systematic study of the needs of the customers. One particular department of the Connecticut plant is under the control of an expert foundryman, who is engaged solely in designing iron foundry buildings, the result being that if the company are told how many castings of a given type are to be produced, they will supply a foundry especially laid out for the purpose.

The Berlin works are not alone in the sagacious and trade-compelling policy of employing experts to design special plants, special factories, and special tools. It has been adopted in recent years by a majority of American steel makers, who in this way score a decided advantage over their British and German competitors, to whom the expert specialist is comparatively unknown, and is, past question, the principal reason for the constant and rapid increase in our exports of iron and steel. When the American steel manufacturer finds a market wanting, he sets about making one, and he seldom fails of success. Thus, while a few years ago the pressed-steel car was almost unknown, over 15,000 of them are in use at the present time. This business, which had a modest birth in 1889, has grown in a single decade to a number of plants able to produce 130 cars per day, their output being limited only by the difficulty in obtaining steel. Our exports of iron and steel during 1900 promise to exceed in value $131,000,000 — an increase over 1899 of $32,000,000.

American Locomotives for Export

The lesson taught by our steel makers is one that can be studied with profit by other American manufacturers seeking an enlarged foreign market for their goods. It has already been mastered by American builders of locomotives. The Baldwin Works, of Philadelphia, have lately received an order for twenty-two heavy freight locomotives for use on the government railroads of New Zealand, and another order now being executed by the same concern is that for six locomotives for the Rio Tinto Mining Company, of Spain, a British corporation engaged in mining ore. Recent shipments from the Baldwin Works include a dozen locomotives for the Belgian State Railway, while the first American locomotives to be used in Ireland were started across the water in the early days of September. Nor are these orders exceptional ones. Nearly all the American plants engaged in locomotive building now have on hand considerable orders from foreign buyers. Egypt is buying our locomotives; they are being shipped in growing numbers to South America; even Germany and Russia order them. Confidence in a still larger use of them abroad is borne out by a recent statement from Lord Cromer, the British governor-general in Egypt. "Their choice," he says, "is simply due to the fact that American firms almost invariably offer engines built on standard designs of their own at lower prices and in less time, while the English and other European makers content themselves with their old designs, not being, as a rule, in the habit of manufacturing to standard designs of their own. We prefer," he adds, "to adhere to our standards, but in cases where time and cost are of great importance, offers from America cannot be passed."

American Typewriters in New Markets

America's chief market for machinery is still to be found in European countries, but an increasing proportion is being sold in the Far East, especially in Australasia, in Japan, and in India. The typewriter supplies, perhaps, the most striking instance of this development of a new market. Our exports of typewriters to Australasia in 1898 amounted to only $60,039, while in the fiscal year 1900 they were $101,000; to Japan the exports of typewriters in 1898 were but $4220; in 1899 they increased to $7262, and in 1900 to $16,579, thus clearly forecasting the possibilities of future development in this article of export. "The demand for American typewriters," says a prominent manufacturer quoted by the New York *Commercial*, "was never greater, and our machines are pretty good globe trotters. We have just made a shipment to Puntas Arenas, on the Straits of Magellan, at the extreme southern point of South America, and another lot of typewriters has been sent north to

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Vladivostock, Russia, for the use of the imperial government. Many of the missionaries and foreign business men in China use our machines; nearly every American regiment in the Philippines has from three to five of them; and, as business increases at Manila under American auspices, there will be a big demand for typewriters. The American typewriter has become well-nigh universal in its use."

Wireless Telegraphy and the Telegraphone

One of the recent developments in electricity most potent with promise for the future is the extended practical test given to the Marconi system of wireless telegraphy by the British army and navy in South Africa. British headquarters were, by the use of Marconi's instruments, kept in constant communication with detachments of the army, some of which were fifty and sixty miles away; while the British admiral at Delagoa Bay was enabled to send messages eighty, and even a hundred, miles. These tests are regarded by experts as fully demonstrating that military campaigning offers no serious obstacle to the use of wireless telegraphy. Meantime, it is serving peaceful pursuits to an increased degree. A number of ocean liners are now equipped with Marconi instruments in order to announce their approach to the coast; lightships employ the same means to report wrecks and summon aid from life-saving stations on shore, and a recent number of a London scientific journal describes a successful test of an automatic device for warning vessels in a fog of the proximity of dangerous rocks. A transmitter capable of sending out waves for seven miles was operated by clock-work, and made to repeat the word "Fastnet" at intervals of three minutes. A ship on which there was a Marconi receiver, and which came within the range of the signal, would learn of its peril in ample time to save itself.

Another recent noteworthy development in electricity is the telegraphone invented by the Danish engineer, Valdemar Poulsen. This invention is a phonograph which magnetically records the sounds converted into electric vibrations by the telephone, and appears to have solved a problem which has presented unusual difficulties. What the relay is to the telegraph, Poulsen's instrument promises to be to the telephone, and also to perform functions similar to those of the duplex telegraph. It has not crossed the water as yet, but is now used in the Danish telephone systems with no little success.

American Exportation of Coal

Though the strike in the anthracite region caused some disturbance in the coal trade, a more significant development is the increasing export of American coal to foreign markets. The present year has witnessed a remarkable rise in the price of coal throughout Great Britain, an advance ranging from seventy-five cents to two dollars and a half per ton. This rise, which seriously menaces England's export trade in coal, has an immediate and vital interest for American mine owners; for while English coal exists only in limited quantities and can now be produced only at a relatively high cost, the United States has an inexhaustible supply, and can afford to sell it at a far lower price.

Cardiff coal cannot be delivered at Gibraltar or Marseilles for much less than ten dollars a ton, but American coal can be shipped to the Mediterranean and sold for seven dollars and a half per ton. A Russian naval agent has lately placed at Norfolk an order for 1,000,000 tons, and other foreign governments promise to become early and heavy buyers of American coal. What with our ownership of one-half of the coal area of the world, and furnishing at the present time one-third of its total production, the day is no longer distant when we will furnish not only food for the industrial and military armies of some of our chief competitors, but also the fuel by which they are supported.

Finished Goods for Less than Raw Product

A novel and unparalleled condition of affairs prevails in the cotton trade. The American cotton crop for 1900 will fall short of that of last year by an average of at least eight per cent. Under ordinary conditions, the cost of raw cotton does not materially affect the selling prices of the finished product; but recent advances, impelled by the decreased crop, have been so rapid and so great as to set aside all ordinary conditions. Spot cotton has recently been quoted in the New York market at eleven cents per pound, while the price of goods remained on a basis of seven and a half cents a pound for the raw material. It goes without saying that the gap thus created must be filled up, or that manufacturers must, for the time being, cease production. This latter course has already been adopted by English manufacturers, and their example is likely to be followed by many of their American competitors.

Against this phase of the cotton trade may be set the statement that in the first six months of the current year the United States surpassed all former records in the construction of new textile mills. All in all 307 new mills are reported, 194 of them manufacturing cotton. Most of the new woollen mills are located in the North and West, but all save eighteen of the new cotton mills must be credited to the several Southern States, North and South Carolina leading all the others. More than one-fourth of our cotton spindles, and an even

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larger proportion of our cotton looms, are now located in the South, a showing which clearly emphasizes the growing practice of manufacturing cotton in the regions where it is grown. The ex-slave States promise in a few years to lead New England in their output of cotton goods of the cheaper grades, and to offer formidable rivalry in other departments of the trade.

Commercial Supremacy of the United States

English and German concern at America's economic advance proves to be well founded. Estimates prepared for THE WORLD'S WORK place our production of manufactured goods during 1900 at $125,00,000,000, a sum fully $450,000,000 in excess of the manufactured products of Great Britain and Germany, our chief competitors for the world's trade. In a period compassed by the memory of men not yet old, we have doubled our exports to the United Kingdom, while greatly reducing our imports, and the same statement applies to our trade relations with Germany. Sale for our excess of production over domestic consumption is found not only by sedulously cultivating old markets, but also by creating new ones, and this last is, in some respects, the most significant feature of our export trade in the closing days of the century. Eight years ago the annual exports of the United States to Asia, Oceanica, and British Australasia were less than $50,000,000. This year they will exceed $190,000,000, with promise of a still greater increase in the near future.

Nor do these figures tell the whole story. Wall Street takes its place with Lombard Street, and this year, for the first time, Europe does some of its banking on the western side of the Atlantic. By reason of the steadily growing trade balance in favor of this country, Europe is now, and has been for some time past, a heavy debtor to the United States. Conservative estimates place the sums at present owing to our bankers and merchants from foreign debtors at not less than $500,000,000, and to liquidate this debt the different countries of Europe have begun to send us their national bonds. Following upon a Russian loan of $10,000,000 in the opening days of the year, came American purchases of British Exchequer bonds to the amount of $32,000,000, and more recently a German war loan of $20,000,000 was oversubscribed on the very day that the subscription lists were opened in New York. Gold was sent in part payment for the Russian and British bonds, but such were our credits in Germany that no gold whatever was shipped in payment for the German bonds subscribed for in this country — all which is an evidence of the new position the United States has taken in the financial world.

An Increase of Country Banks

The most significant feature of country banking during the current year has been the great increase in the number of national banks of small capital, located for the most part in towns and cities of modest size. The change in the banking law permitting the organization of national banks of $25,000, was approved on March 14. During the ensuing six months applications were approved for the organization of 351 national banks, each with a capital of less than $50,000. Of approved applications for the organization of banks, each with an authorized capital of $50,000 or more, there were 113. The total number of banks organized in the period under discussion was 312, and the total authorized capital amounted to a trifle over $16,000,000.

Most of these new banks are in places heretofore without banking facilities, and are bound to quicken trade in an immediate and radical way. In one Pennsylvania town, to give a definite instance, the organization of a national bank has opened a ready and economical source of credit to a number of merchants, traders, and small manufacturers, who were formerly compelled to look to private lenders for needed advances, often paying usurious rates that cut heavily into their profits. Similar examples could be furnished by every State which has a place in the list of new national banks.

One other indication of financial growth and activity should not pass unnoticed — the great increase during the past four years in the amount of gold, silver, and paper money in the possession of our citizens and financial institutions. This increase totals the great sum of $590,000,000, three-fifths of which consists of gold coin and gold certificates, and, with an increase of $100,000,000 in the gold owned by the Government, shows an increase in the country's money of nearly $500,000,000, and of $8 per capita in the amount of money in circulation. More than half of this increase has been drawn from our mines, and the remainder from Europe in payment for exports.

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GENERAL WILLIAM TECUMSEH SHERMAN.

Statue by Augustus Saint-Gaudens, exhibited at the Paris Exposition. There has been a good deal of discussion of the question of placing this statue

THE WORLD'S WORK

VOLUME I DECEMBER 1900 NUMBER 2

The March of Events

THERE is no mistaking the larger meaning of the Presidential election. The events of the last four years have indicated the passing of the period of our international isolation; and the people have shown their understanding and approval of the change with an emphasis that they have not used since they expressed their understanding and approval of the war to preserve the Union.

The first half-century of the republic was given to procuring, exploring, and very slowly settling the transcontinental area that we occupy; several decades were given to the fierce discussion and at last to the eradication of slavery; and the last thirty years have been given to more rapid settlement and to the uninterrupted development of the land and of the people, and to the swift movement of the organization of energy. During this last period we grew in power and wealth faster than we knew, and we kept the narrower economic and political vision of an earlier time.

But the little war with Spain and its consequences lifted our horizon, and we saw more clearly the place that we had won in the world.

What was at stake in the Presidential campaign, then, was not the old stake of mere party supremacy — whether we should have a Republican President or a Democratic President; for the historic doctrines of the two parties played small part in men's thoughts. States rights and customs duties were hardly mentioned. It was a contest whether we should accept the larger responsibilities of the new era in our development, or should keep our old-time isolation. The question was more clearly put than any question had before been put to the whole people for thirty years: Should we maintain our commercial honor and credit, should we accept our international responsibilities, and should we go forward in our natural and fairly won commercial progress to supremacy?

The people saw this larger meaning of the contest; and every state whose population shows primary activity and independence of thought, for the first time since the period just following the Civil War, cast its vote for the same candidate; and there has been no Presidential election since 1864 that was so keenly watched abroad.

As the century begins, then, we clearly enter a new period in our national development.

THE PRESIDENT'S TRIUMPH

SURELY no more solemn responsibility ever rested on a ruler than now falls on President McKinley. The approval of the people has been most flatteringly expressed — approval of the gold standard, of a vigorous foreign policy, of the administra-

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SENATOR GEORGE F. HOAR.

tion's aim in dealing with our island wards. And the President has the right to feel a profound personal gratification as well. Mr. Roosevelt, too, may take a large share for himself. They both now enjoy a degree of public favor which few men in recent years have won. No administration has for half a century begun under happier conditions than



GOVERNOR-ELECT ODELL OF NEW YORK.

Mr. McKinley's second administration will begin.

Any candid student of contemporaneous politics must confess that the President has, during his first term of office, steadily gained fixity of purpose and continuity of policy. He has evolved a definite programme out of the popular generalizations with which he was equipped four years ago. Few men have developed better under great responsibilities; and between the beginning and the end of an administration no greater stride was ever taken from the common level of politics towards true statesmanship.

Much of this definiteness has come from the strong men that the President has gathered about him. When he began his administration, Mr. Sherman, too heavily burdened with years, was Secretary of State, and Mr. Alger, burdened with unfitness, was Secretary of War. To both these (so at least the public reasoned) portfolios were given for partisan reasons. But the administration ends with the strongest men at these two important posts that have held them for a long period; and Mr. Hay and Mr. Root do not owe their places to political or personal favor. Other recent appointments have been as good — Wood in Cuba, Taft in the Philippines, Allen in Porto Rico. In fact, the President has a stronger cabinet and an abler body of men in most of the places of great responsibility than any President has had since Lincoln; and, as in Lincoln's time, the stress of great duties has brought this about. Few men have been more bitterly regarded by his political opponents than Mr. McKinley was regarded four years ago; yet no Presidential candidate has ever received so large a vote in the electoral college as he will receive.

A strong foreign policy; a firm and gentle hand in dealing frankly with the old Spanish Islands; the cutting of the isthmian canal; the establishment of the gold standard beyond any chance of future discussion; definiteness, definiteness, definiteness, — this is a programme whereby the President may make himself permanently as strong in the public favor as he is for the moment; for the prodigious victory that he won at the polls was not wholly a positive victory. He owes much to the weakness of his opponent. It was a patriotic victory rather than a personal or par-

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tisan one. His popular majority was greater than in 1896; and his overwhelming election presents two noteworthy facts: there was a considerable Republican defection in some Republican states, and at the same time a larger and more important independent Democratic vote was cast for him than he received four years ago. More men deserted the Democratic party because Mr. Bryan stood for an attack on the public credit and for the abandonment of our colonial responsibilities than had deserted from either party's ranks in thirty years. Probably neither the Republican defection from Blaine nor the Democratic defection from Bryan four years ago was as large as the independent Democratic vote this year.

So much the greater, then, the responsibility of the President, who has had not only a critical partisan endorsement but an independent and patriotic one besides. During his first administration he has risen to the great occasions that have confronted him — sometimes hesitatingly, but he has every time risen; and he now has a patriotic and expectant people behind him — a support that imposes higher obligations than any merely partisan victory could bring.

NEW MEN IN HIGH PLACES

THE election has brought into prominent, or more prominent, public positions an even larger number of new men than usual, many of them young men too, men who are at most just entering middle life. Mr. Bryan himself is the youngest man that ever played for such high stakes in our political history; and Mr. Roosevelt, just passed forty-two, has had a swift and brilliant rise. He may be said to have won the distinction of the hero of the campaign.

The Governor-elect of Illinois, Mr. Richard Yates, the son and namesake of the famous war governor of that state, was born in 1860, and was, by the way, a classmate in college of Mr. Bryan. He began the practice of law in 1884, and has come forward in politics swiftly. He was appointed a collector of internal revenue in 1897, and before that he had been city attorney of Jacksonville, Illinois, and judge of the county.

Mr. Benjamin B. Odell, Jr., Governor-elect of New York, is six years older than Mr. Yates,



GOVERNOR-ELECT LA FOLLETTE OF WISCONSIN.

and a native and resident of Newburgh. He has been an active politician from early manhood, but his office-holding in the past has been confined to two terms in Congress. He declined a second renomination and gave his time to business affairs and to very active party management. Since 1898 he has been chairman of the Republican state committee.

Mr. Robert M. La Follette, Governor-elect of Wisconsin, was born in that state in 1855. A lawyer, he was elected to Congress in 1884 and twice reëlected, but his present prominence in the politics of his state is due mainly to his advocacy of the principle of primary elections for the nomination of all candidates by the Australian ballot.

TWO LONG PUBLIC CAREERS

TURNING to the oldest men in public life, Mr. Hoar, the venerable and personally well-beloved senator from Massachusetts, is the oldest member of the Senate now in service, except Mr. Allison, and the Legislature of his state will probably reëlect him this winter. His political career began in 1852, before any of the men above mentioned were born. After service in both branches of the Legislature of

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Massachusetts, and as a member of Congress, he became United States Senator in 1876. Senator Hoar has not agreed wholly with the Philippine policy of the administration, but he has never shown the stuff of which men are made who leave their parties. He is, in several ways, the most notable member of the Senate.

But the last man of the generation in our public life that had to do with the slavery controversies of fifty years ago in the National Legislature, was Mr. Sherman — the last, except Mr. Grow of Pennsylvania, who, as a



GOVERNOR-ELECT YATES OF ILLINOIS.

young man, entered Congress in 1851. Mr. Sherman's public career began in 1848, when he was a delegate to the Whig convention that nominated Taylor. His retirement in 1898 from Mr. McKinley's cabinet made a period of just fifty years. He was first elected to Congress in 1854, and for forty-four years thereafter, as representative, senator, and cabinet officer, he continuously held high official station. Once only has this record in national political service been approached during the later history of the Republic, and that was in the case of the late Justin S. Morrill, whose unbroken service in one branch of Congress or the other covered a period of forty-three years.

MR. BRYAN'S PROGRESSIVE DEFEAT

MR. BRYAN has achieved the distinction of bringing upon the party that was in power when he took its leadership a threefold defeat repeated with progressive emphasis. He opposed the gold standard, he opposed the spirit of the organization of industry, he opposed the nation's responsibility for the wards left to it by war; and he has wrought such havoc on the great political party that succumbed to his eloquence as to reduce it to the shreds and tatters of the discontented and the visionary. No other man in our whole political history has left such a trail of defeat behind him.

The only states that he carried besides the states that would have voted for a Democratic graven image are four small mining states, and he lost three of the border Southern states — Delaware, Maryland, and West Virginia. He will have four less votes in the Electoral College than the solid South casts.

Men with different points of view have drawn widely different conclusions from the extraordinary defeat of Mr. Bryan. But one conclusion no candid political observer can escape: the American people do not wish him to become President. He stands for what they will not have. The public had an opportunity for more than four years to make its estimate of the man as a Presidential candidate — a better opportunity than any other candidate since Henry Clay has given it; and he impressed himself on them as a danger to the economic welfare of the Republic — a man who had badly fooled himself. But such is the nature of democracies that "no man can fool all the people all the time." The oratorical temperament is likely to accompany a theoretical judgment. The defect in Mr. Bryan as a public leader is that he mistook rhetoric for facts, oratory for achievement. He is a man who never did anything — but talk. A body of concrete results of some form of activity seems to be essential to the building up of a sound judgment. All men who do things have not sound judgment; but few men have it who do not do things. Public opinion usually measures men with a strangely unerring accuracy, if not at the first trial then surely at the second.

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ELIHU ROOT, SECRETARY OF WAR. (*See "Mr. Root as Secretary of War."*)

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Naval Cadet W. B. Tardy. Lt. Frank Marble. Ensign A. W. Marshall. Lt. W. C. Crosby. Ensign E. H. Watson.
Capt. J. M. Forsyth. Rear-Admiral Watson. Lt.-Cmdr. Chauncey Thomas.

REAR-ADMIRAL WATSON AND HIS STAFF.

On board the Flagship December, 1899. The mourning-bands on the arms are worn for Vice-President Hobart.

THE FUTURE OF THE DEMOCRATIC PARTY

YET not even Mr. Bryan's dismemberment of the Democratic party has killed it. Indeed, there is no such thing as killing either of the great parties of American politics, least of all the Democratic party — except in the minds of visionary gentlemen who carry about with them their own pocket parties. In our political life, the party is an elemental thing. It may be led; it may be misled; but it is as eternal as a river. Its course may be changed, but it flows on.

And the Democratic party is likely to profit by this pitiful experience. If it now find leaders and managers worthy of its history and of its true aims, it may quickly become a healthful opposition and do a great public service; and, under proper leadership, its chance to win the Presidency four years hence is better than if it had this year met only a respectable defeat. At least half the voters of the country would now subscribe to a sound Democratic creed if it should be bodied forth in leaders of vigor and patriotism. For they do not like the "syndicated" aspects of the Republican party. A good working policy till a satisfactory creed is made would be —

The extension of civil service reform to all minor postmasters, and all consuls and consular agents, and the inviolable spirit of the merit system throughout the public service;

The maintenance of the dignity of the nation abroad, a strong navy, a well-equipped and well-officered regular army large enough to maintain a good organization;

The establishment of peace and order in our dependent islands which we hold in trust for civilization, and whose people are our wards to be trained for self-government;

The gold standard;

Publicity about all interstate corporations that fall within Federal jurisdiction;

The local taxation of franchises;

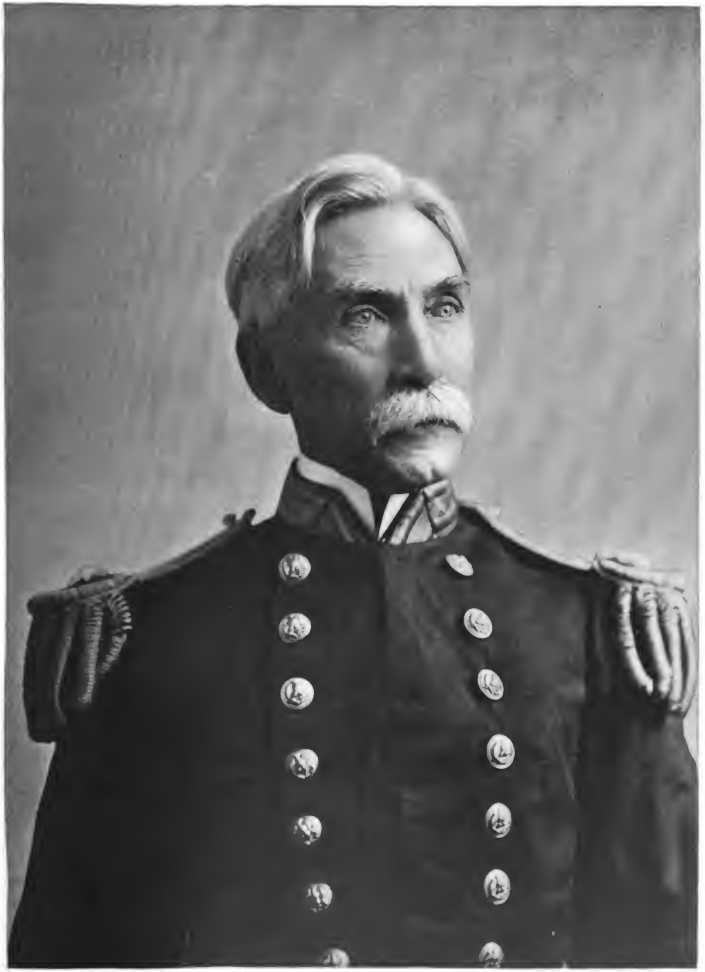
The building by the government of an isthmian canal;

The restriction of the franchise without discrimination on account of color, and without subterfuge;

A prompt repudiation of Tammany Hall as a part of the Democratic party.

These are all Democratic policies, and they are positive. Jefferson, Jackson, Tilden,

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REAR-ADMIRAL JOHN CRITTENDEN WATSON, U. S. N.

(*See "Our Navy in the Philippines."*)

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A MISSIONARY IN CHINA PREPARED FOR A JOURNEY.

Cleveland — every great Democrat has subscribed to them or to the principles that underlie them. Equally important — the men who have twice brought defeat to the party would not subscribe to them.

AN AUSTRALASIAN PARTY

THE blind managers who have twice brought defeat to the Democratic party present an interesting study. Logically they ought to demand first, government control of transportation and of mines, and later the government ownership of them. It is such an extension of governmental functions that they are driving towards, but they have thus far lacked the courage of their convictions.

This collectivist tendency is already strong in some sections of the country, and it will be strengthened at any time by the cessation of high prosperity. It was the hard times of 1893 and the following years that made Mr. Bryan possible in 1896. Such a sentiment will yet have many times to be reckoned with. It has the merit of positiveness; and, in periods of depression, it will make headway. How fast it will grow and what other



HOW THE MISSIONARIES TRAVEL IN CHINA



CHINESE CHILD DRESSED FOR "FEAST OF FLOWERS."



A NATIVE PREACHER

tenets it will avow will depend to some extent on the success of the similar programme in Australasia.

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WU TING FANG, CHINESE MINISTER TO THE UNITED STATES.

(*See "His Excellency, Wu Ting Fang."*)

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A CORNER IN THE LIBRARY OF CHARLES DUDLEY WARNER AT HARTFORD, CONNECTICUT.

CHARLES DUDLEY WARNER

THE society of some men's books is better than the society of the men themselves. Hawthorne's novels have a fascination that Hawthorne lacked. But when Charles Dudley Warner died, the world of good men lost even more than the world of letters. There was a gentle, penetrating, affectionate quality of the man that even his best books lack. Yet his best books are full of a rare geniality. He had a more highly developed social quality than almost any man of letters that is left; and no man is so rich in friendships as to lose such a fine spirit from the best company that he can keep without a keen and lasting sense of loss, and a sense of thankfulness, too, for having known him.

MARK TWAIN AT HOME AGAIN

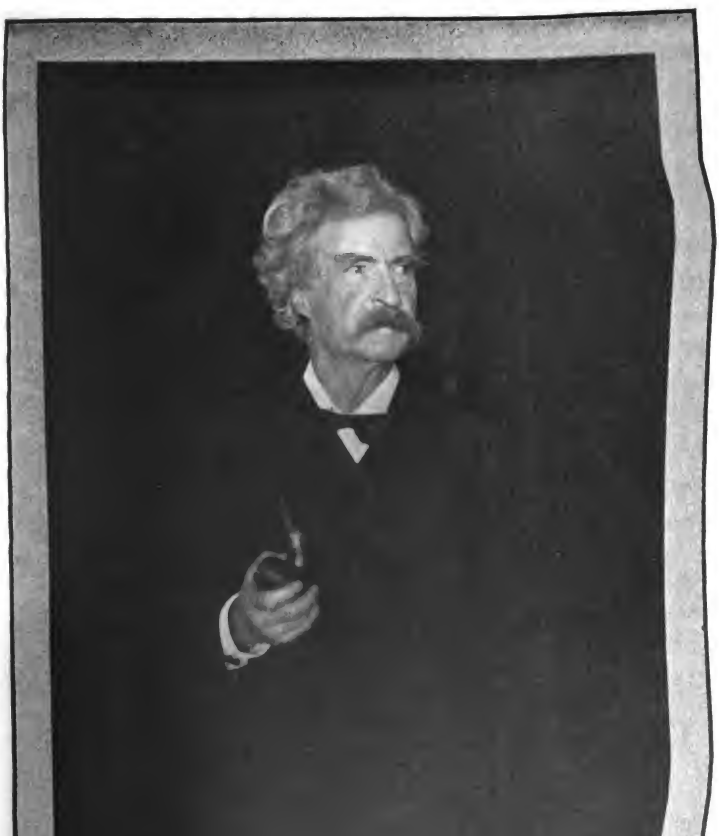
MARK TWAIN has come home again after a journey around the world and a long residence abroad. At sixty-five he is in good health and fine feather. Whether he be our greatest philosopher or our best wag, or both, — you may start a controversy in any company by propounding either opinion that you hold. And whether it be a part of the philosophical plan of his life, or a cruel threat, or only a joke, — that he is writing his opinion of his contemporaries, not to be published till he has been dead a hundred years, — he will not say. Foreign residence has not changed him, and time deals gently with him. He has taken a house for the winter in New York, and he says that he will not travel more. But he says also that he has in his life received small encouragement to tell the truth, for the world prefers to believe him when he is joking. The double controversy betwixt him and the world continues — whether he is serious or not, and whether or not the world itself be serious.



THE LATE CHARLES DUDLEY WARNER.

From a photograph taken at the home of his friend, Mr. F. S. Church, the artist.

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Photographed for "The World's Work," October, 1900. Copyright, 1900, by Doubleday, Page & Co.

MARK TWAIN AS HE IS AT 65.

A New Photographic Portrait by Gertrude Käsebier.

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IN THE HOME OF THE LATE WILLIAM L. WILSON.

WM. L. WILSON AND SOUTHERN EDUCATION

MR. WILLIAM L. WILSON, long a member of Congress from West Virginia, author of the Wilson Tariff Bill, Postmaster General in Mr. Cleveland's last Cabinet, and for three years or more president of Washington and Lee University, at Lexington, Virginia, was the best representative in recent years of the higher level of ante-bellum Southern men in public life; and he was as good an example as this generation has had of the gentleman in politics, with an heroic quality at the core of his gentility. It is Mr. Wilson's distinction that when his political career ended, he chose to do educational work rather than to practise law or to engage in industrial pursuits — one might say, other industrial pursuits. He did not live long enough to prove whether he could make a great school of the college of which he accepted the presidency. But he was the kind of man that ought to take up that sort of work; and his taking it up gives the cue to his high-minded view of life, just as taking up the same task showed the same trait in General Lee.

The test given by these two is a true test of high qualities in a commercial era. When the defeat of the Confederacy left its generals in poverty and without employment, some of them sold their influence to the infamous Louisiana Lottery. General Lee declined very lucrative offers to lend his name to insurance companies and other commercial undertakings, and earnestly gave himself to the building up of this college. Mr. Wilson, too, declined chances to make money, preferring to turn his political reputation to the same high end.

And the presidency of a college in almost any Southern state is as hard a lot as falls to a man of capacity who can choose what he will do. Additional equipment is needed, endowment funds are small, rich men are scarce (although Mr. Washington Duke and Mr. B. N. Duke, of Durham, North Carolina, are very generously endowing Trinity College, a Methodist institution in that town, to which they have given about $1,000,000), most of the state universities are regarded with suspicion if not with hostility by the colleges under ecclesiastical management, and most of the colleges under ecclesiastical management must pay a high price in spirit for church support. Yet they must all continually raise their standard, as most of them have done; for they do more good work perhaps at a small cost than any other institutions in the land. Correspondingly there is no work in which a capable Southern man can engage and feel so sure that he is serving his country and his generation nobly.

The generous support of state universities is not as common in the South as in the West. Texas and Tennessee maintain good institutions for higher education, and several other states maintain them in part or meagrely; but in too many of the states the ecclesiastical bodies discourage the public maintenance of universities. This attitude of the churches is doubly unfortunate because few of them are able to equip their own colleges well. It is the churches that discourage the development of a system such as Texas and Michigan have.



THE HOUSE OCCUPIED BY MR. WILSON, BUILT ORIGINALLY FOR GEN. ROBERT E. LEE.

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JOHN SHERMAN IN THE STUDY OF HIS WASHINGTON HOME.

THE CUBAN CONSTITUTIONAL CONVENTION

THE Cuban Constitutional Convention which met in Havana November 5, to discuss and to formulate a fundamental law for the island, has the task of framing a constitution modelled on the constitution of the United States, but adapted to a tropical country and a Spanish-American people. When a constitution is formulated it must be submitted to the President of the United States for approval. The President will doubtless refer it to Congress, which may suggest modifications. All this will take time; but a republic cannot be organized in a day even under the most favorable circumstances.

The call for the convention, issued by the American Governor-General, specified that the constitution adopted should define the future relations of Cuba to the United States. This clause at once provoked a strong protest from the extremists in Cuba, who demanded that the new republic should be left free to frame its own fundamental law and that the United States should not force from Cuba any more favorable terms, political or commercial, than are accorded to other countries.

In fact, the controlling political element is the Revolutionary party, which is opposed to a continuance of American authority and desires immediate and complete independence. Delegates were elected under a restricted franchise; but the principal candidates were leaders in the Cuban revolutionary forces, and most of them were elected over conservative opponents who presumably favor an American protectorate, at least as a guarantee of future peace and prosperity.

The Cubans are now confronted with the first severe test of their ability to think for themselves in political matters. Their behavior in this convention will to a great extent determine the measure of political independence that the Congress of the United States will at last grant them. There are many hot-headed and extreme anti-American politicians in the Revolutionary party, and we shall hear from them much fervid oratory, some of which will cause amusement, some of it, perhaps, anger; and the temper of the convention will be a good indication of the ability of the Cubans to govern themselves.

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THE HALL OF FAME.
Within the Colonnade, showing where the Tablets will be placed.



From the Faculty Road.

Many patriotic Cubans believe that Cuba needs the United States more than the United States needs Cuba. This opinion is shared by the Americans who have been in control in the island for nearly two years.

The work of the convention must cause a clearer formulation, too, of our immediate purpose with regard to the island. Thus far we have drifted. We are pledged to grant the Cubans freedom, but we are not pledged to do it till we are sure that they have established a government which they can maintain without our help. Whether or not they show themselves capable at once of complete self-government, the United States is keeping its faith; and it is a rare sight, and a good one, to see one nation present freedom to another that had been long oppressed.

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A HALL OF FAME

ANY institution may make a hall of fame and put in it whose name soever it will (or any citizen may make himself such a hall if he wish); but it so happens that nobody has made one but the New York University. Straightway, of course, other persons have vigorously fallen foul of these judgments of greatness, as it was to be expected of those who will make no halls of their own. Down with a Hall of Fame unless it be of one's own making! But in this enterprise, as in most others, the work of the men who have built a Hall, however foolish it may be, stands; and the criticisms of it, like most other criticisms, have already been blown to sea.

New York University received a gift of $100,000 with which it built a colonnade 500 feet long on University Heights, a beautiful site in upper New York City, overlooking the valleys of the Harlem and the Hudson. One hundred and fifty panels, two feet by eight, will bear simple inscriptions of the names and dates of birth and death of the famous native Americans who are chosen as our one hundred and fifty greatest men. Fifty are to be chosen this year, and five every five years thereafter till the year 2000. Everybody was invited to make nominations; and such nominations as were seconded by the Senate of the University were submitted to a hundred judges, representing every state in the Union. These judges were university and college presidents, professors of history, scientists, publicists, editors, authors, and judges of the supreme court, national and state. Ninety-seven of these sent in their votes, and twenty-nine great men, native and ten years dead, chosen by this vote, and thereafter ratified by the Senate of the University, are the first of these immortals.

Now, any man can make for himself a roll of great Americans that shall be better than any hundred men can make for him. But allowing for the infirmities of other men's judgment, every man must admit that these twenty-nine names are the names of great men, some of them of very great men, a few of them of the greatest men in history. And the list includes perhaps fifteen that would appear on the list made by any intelligent person. But their order presents some surprises. That Marshall should stand so high in the list shows the well-balanced influence of the legal men among the judges who voted. That Webster stands third also is a surprise; and the professional literary class, of this particular year and present fashion, would not have chosen Emerson, Longfellow, Irving, Hawthorne in this order,—leaving out Bryant, Poe, and Cooper; but they are likely to be added hereafter. Lowell has not been dead ten years and is not yet eligible. Bryant failed by three votes, Greeley by five, Motley by nine. The most animated discussion has been provoked by the selection of General Robert E. Lee. But since only a minority of the judges were Southern men, the vote for him was at least not sectional. The names of twenty-one other great men will be added to the list.

ROLL OF NAMES CHOSEN FOR THE HALL OF FAME, AND THE NUMBER OF VOTES THAT EACH RECEIVED

George Washington	97
Abraham Lincoln	96
Daniel Webster	96
Benjamin Franklin	94
Ulysses S. Grant	92
John Marshall	91
Thomas Jefferson	90
Ralph Waldo Emerson	87
Henry Wadsworth Longfellow	85
Robert Fulton	85
Washington Irving	83
Jonathan Edwards	81
Samuel F. B. Morse	80
David Glasgow Farragut	79
Henry Clay	74
Nathaniel Hawthorne	73
George Peabody	72
Robert E. Lee	69
Peter Cooper	69
Eli Whitney	67
John James Audubon	67
Horace Mann	67
Henry Ward Beecher	66
James Kent	65
Joseph Story	64
John Adams	61
William Ellery Channing	58
Gilbert Stuart	52
Asa Gray	51

This Hall of Fame will be a popular educational influence of very great value, and of greater value when mural paintings and statues and busts shall have been added. It is another attractive addition to the beauty of New York; and now the two most commanding eminences in the city are crowned with institutions for higher learning, one with a noble library, the other with this Hall of Fame.

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THE REAPPORTIONMENT OF CONGRESS

IT will be the duty of Congress to make a reapportionment of representatives in Congress, based on the new census. The congressional districts are now made on the basis of one representative for every 173,901 inhabitants. The new apportionment will probably be one representative for every 200,000 inhabitants. Such an apportionment would increase the membership of the House of Representatives from 357 to 377, and of the Electoral College from 447 to 467.

If this scale of apportionment be adopted, the following states which voted for McKinley in November will gain a member or members of Congress: Connecticut 1, Illinois 2, Massachusetts 1, Michigan 2, Minnesota 2, New Jersey 1, New York 2, North Dakota 1, Pennsylvania 2, Washington 1, West Virginia 1; total 16; and Kansas will lose 1, Nebraska 1, and Maine 1, leaving a net gain of 13.

Of the states that voted for Bryan, Arkansas will gain 1, Colorado 1, Florida 1, Louisiana 1, Mississippi 1, Missouri 1, Texas 2; total 8; and Virginia will lose 1; a net gain of 7.

The reapportionment of members of Congress has not often provoked partisan wrangles. The new reapportionment on account of the great urban growth in the states that this year voted for Mr. McKinley, but especially because of the unprecedented victory (by states) for the Republicans, will give them the advantage — a gain of 13 against a Democratic gain of 7.

Whether an effort will be made to cut down the representation in the Southern states because of the elimination of the negro vote, we shall hear as soon as the session's plans are outlined.

NEW POLITICAL SENTIMENT IN THE SOUTH

SOMETIMES an event that has forever been going to happen does at last come to pass; and the South may yet suffer a division of political opinion. The building up of a Republican party there has been too hard a task for any Republican administration, for no Republican administration has ever understood that the Southern white man's point of view has been social not political; but what Grant and Hayes and Harrison and McKinley could not do to win votes, Mr. Bryan has done to repel them. How easily the large number of "McKinley Democrats" will fall back into the Democratic party will depend on Mr. Bryan's successor as the Democratic candidate for the Presidency and on the Republican temper the next four years. But the large vote cast for McKinley electors in these states, by men who have always been Democrats, is a new political phenomenon.

We have been told for years that if the negro vote were eliminated, the Southern white vote would be divided on National questions. But the negro vote has long been eliminated by statute in South Carolina, Mississippi, and Louisiana, and more recently in North Carolina, and by other methods in some of the other Southern states; and until this year the predicted result did not follow. The prediction was evidently based on a false analysis of the nature of party changes, especially in conservative communities. It has been assumed that masses of men change their habits or their point of view by logical processes, whereas they very seldom do. They change in obedience to events or as a result of action. Doctrine, divorced from action, is dead in politics as in most other departments of human conduct.

The South has become more prosperous than it ever was. A larger number of persons there are well-to-do than ever before. Cotton mills send their product to China; iron mills send their product to Europe and to Africa; tobacco factories send their product to all countries; orchards and gardens give their yield fresh to the great cities; coal goes directly to Europe; grain from the northwest finds its exit by New Orleans; lumber is shipped in the form of furniture; cotton fetches a higher price than men in middle life remember; there is no fear of an epidemic from Havana; and trunk lines of railroad are teaching the lesson of great business organization. It is because of these activities and not because of political doctrines that energetic men prefer the gold standard to party loyalty and a foreign policy that commands respect to the traditions of the fathers.

Either of two results of this division of political opinion may follow. If the Democratic party again affirms its creed of 1896, these Southern men who voted for McKinley

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will permanently desert it; or, if the Democratic party at the next election be more wisely led, they may return to it. In either event, the political representatives of most of these states ought henceforth to rise above the intellectual level of campaigns conducted to prevent "negro supremacy." If such a healthful change come, it is of little importance by what party name the new political life calls itself. The important thing for the South and for the Nation is that the character, the energy, and the intelligence of these people shall find more fitting representation in public life than they have found in recent years.

It would have a most wholesome effect if Southern men of character and substance would emphasize their independence of thought by immediately organizing a movement — whether they call it political or industrial — to hold together for future action those who stand for sound money and national honor. They could do much to remove the lifelong feeling of independent men elsewhere that freedom of opinion and action is not to be expected in the South. Both Southern character and industrial activity would gain enormously by such a movement. It would be a long step towards leadership again.

IN EARNEST ABOUT THE ISTHMIAN CANAL

THE cutting of a canal across the isthmus of Panama is one of the inevitable and necessary great tasks that must be done by the United States Government. So long as we kept the mood of timidity and were content with the partisan discussion of our own parochial political subjects, private companies played with it. Now that we have risen to the realization of our true place among the nations and have taken on a mood of action, it is the general belief that the canal will be cut. It is indeed the expectation of the world. The over-conservative will yield, and the opposition of transcontinental railroads, if such opposition exists, will be overcome.

Soon after the assembling of Congress, the Isthmian Canal Commission will make a unanimous report to the President in favor of the Nicaraguan route; and the Report will declare that the canal can be cut at a total cost within the $140,000,000 allowed in the Hepburn bill which passed the House of Representatives last winter by a large majority. This bill has been made a special order in the Senate for December 10. While a number of senators are opposed to taking any action until the English treaty is disposed of, it is probable that the closing session of this Congress will be made historic by the enactment of a measure of incalculable importance to the whole world; for the canal will be one of the greatest practical achievements in all history.

The bill, as it passed the House, provides for the construction of a waterway for vessels of the largest tonnage from Graytown on the Atlantic to Brito on the Pacific, by way of the San Juan River and Lake Nicaragua, a distance of 187 miles. It provides for an appropriation of $10,000,000 to begin the work, and suggests such progressive appropriations as may be necessary to finish it, the total cost not to exceed $140,000,000. The President is authorized to secure from Costa Rica and Nicaragua the necessary right of way and to dispose of all vested rights and franchises interfering with its construction. The canal is to be built directly by the Government, under the authority of the Secretary of War; and the engineering work is to be done by officers of the Army and Navy Corps.

THE NEW CANAL TREATY WITH ENGLAND

AN important matter to be settled in connection with the Isthmian Canal is Great Britain's rights and interests on the Isthmus. Many distinguished authorities on our diplomatic history maintain that the Clayton-Bulwer treaty is still in force, which, indeed, seems clear. England undoubtedly possesses certain rights on the eastern shore of Nicaragua, somewhat hazy in outline as they are. Yet they are of sufficient definiteness to make trouble if they were ignored by us and if Great Britain chose to exercise her rights. Moreover, there is the duty laid on us of perfectly fair and frank dealing with her.

When Secretary Hay formulated the pending treaty with Great Britain defining the conditions under which the United States should build the canal, he formally acknowledged that the Clayton-Bulwer convention was still in force. The Department of State preferred to give Great Britain the benefit of any doubt on this score, and to dispose of

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the Clayton-Bulwer pact in a diplomatic way rather than to follow the advice of several members of Congress and "lynch" it.

This Hay-Pauncefote treaty is one of the first subjects to be considered by the Senate. The friends of the treaty expect it to be ratified; but the ratification of a treaty requires a two-thirds vote, and as the Senate is now constituted, it will at best have no votes to spare. The objection made to the treaty is the provision whereby the United States binds itself not to fortify the canal, and agrees to leave it open, in case of war, to the vessels of belligerents.

To the lay mind the treaty seems a reasonable one; and to grant the concessions asked by Great Britain is surely a cheap price to pay for the complete removal of the one international difficulty that stands in the way of the construction of the canal. Moreover, if the voice of the people on November 6 were in any sense the voice of God, it ought to be reasonably plain that crying out against amicable and even coöperative relations with Great Britain is at last become a vain cry.

BRITISH AND GERMAN CABINET CHANGES

ON October 18 it was announced that Count von Bülow had succeeded Prince Hohenlohe as German Chancellor. Eleven days later the reorganization of the British Cabinet which was expected to follow the election began with the elevation of Lord Lansdowne from the War to the Foreign Office, vacated for him by Lord Salisbury. In neither case does the change amount to much, so far as foreign affairs are concerned. Hohenlohe is eighty-two years old; von Bülow rises from the Foreign Secretaryship, which he still retains; and since the retirement of Bismarck, the Chancellor's power has been largely in the hands of the autocratic Emperor. In England, Lord Salisbury, retaining the Premiership, still holds the entire field under his survey, and retains a guiding influence, while relieving himself of the burden of departmental business.

Lord Lansdowne's promotion is due to the fact that he had the misfortune to be in the War Office just when the test of the Boer war revealed that its whole mechanism was antiquated. That he must give place in that office to some new man who can assume its duties with the shibboleth of reform in his mouth proves neither his inefficiency nor the contrary. But this question of army reform, together with China and South Africa, is the serious task of the hour in English politics. It is certain to become a party issue, though along what lines cannot be known until the Ministry announces its programme to the new Parliament.

Mr. Chamberlain remains Colonial Secretary. This was formerly one of the less important cabinet offices, but the rising tide of imperial sentiment in England gave him his opportunity, and the Boer war now leaves him its legacy of troubles. During the coming session of Parliament one of the storm centres is certain to be in his neighborhood.

Another minister who is certain to receive the attention of the Opposition is the Earl of Selborne, Lord Salisbury's son-in-law. He rises into the Cabinet from the Under-Secretaryship for the Colonies, to take Mr. Goschen's place as First Lord of the Admiralty. Mr. Goschen was always a tower of strength on the floor of the House of Commons, but the Admiralty has been in much the same case as the War Office, and Conservatives as well as Liberals are demanding new blood and root-and-branch reforms. Whether these will follow remains to be seen. Many of Lord Salisbury's supporters are by no means satisfied with the new appointments, in making which he has shown characteristic indifference to criticism.

THE ANGLO-GERMAN ALLIANCE

NOTHING in Lord Salisbury's conduct of the Foreign Office has quite equalled his last triumph. His first steps in this field were taken under a malign influence. Beaconsfield sent him to Constantinople in 1876, when war was on the point of breaking out in the Balkans, and on the termination of that war took him to the Congress of Berlin as his associate. Heir to the mistakes which fear of Russia inspired in Beaconsfield, Lord Salisbury's conduct of affairs in the nearer East has brought him little credit. The Armenian massacres and the Cretan troubles have been the latest fruits of this policy.

In the far East he has until now been hardly more successful. So much the more surprising then is the *coup* of the Anglo-German alliance. That alliance may be of deep

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significance in European politics. For a generation the policy formulated by Bismarck, of cultivating the friendship of Russia and avoiding the friendship of England, has been steadfastly pursued in Germany. This was for her a matter of strict necessity. With France longing for revenge on one side, Germany's national existence depended on remaining in the good graces of Russia on the other side. In spite of his personal admiration for England, Bismarck never lost an opportunity of stirring up feeling against that country. He feared the consequences of a *rapprochement*.

Now for some months such a *rapprochement* has seemed to be taking place, and to be a part of the Emperor's policy. The family tie between the two reigning houses has been emphasized. Both at the time of the Fashoda incident and during the Boer war Germany is said to have rendered England important services, and to have somewhat cut loose from Russia. Her action in seizing Kiao-Chan must have been a very disagreeable surprise to the latter country, which in 1895 had been able to draw both France and Germany to her support in interfering to prevent Japan getting a foothold on the continent of Asia — a course of action supposed at the time to have been brought about by the rivalry of these two countries for Russia's favor.

If Lord Salisbury has been able to win over to the policy of the open door in China so important an ally, if he has brought to an end the long period of English isolation and secured a permanent ally, and if Germany, developing so rapidly industrially, and with its new colonial ambitions, has decided that it is no longer necessary to cultivate the friendship of Russia at any cost, and that the country's best interests draw in another direction, Lord Salisbury has not only stopped all at once the clamor of the China party, which has been reproaching him for abandoning English interests without a struggle, but has opened a new chapter in European politics.

THE CENSUS OF 1900

THE Director of the Census, on October 30, announced the population of the United States — 76,295,220, an increase of 21 per cent during the decade. The population by states and territories, in 1900 and in 1890, is —

POPULATION OF STATES AND TERRITORIES

STATES	1900	1890	PER CENT GAIN
Alabama	1,828,697	1,513,017	20
Arkansas	1,311,564	1,128,179	16
California	1,485,053	1,208,130	23
Colorado	539,700	412,198	21
Connecticut	908,355	746,258	20
Delaware	184,735	168,493	10
Florida	528,542	391,422	35
Georgia	2,216,239	1,867,353	20
Idaho	161,771	84,385	92
Illinois	4,821,550	3,826,351	23
Indiana	2,516,463	2,192,404	15
Iowa	2,251,829	1,911,896	17
Kansas	1,469,496	1,427,096	3
Kentucky	2,147,174	1,858,635	16
Louisiana	1,381,627	1,118,587	22
Maine	694,366	661,086	5
Maryland	1,189,946	1,042,390	14
Massachusetts	2,805,346	2,238,943	25
Michigan	2,419,782	2,093,889	20
Minnesota	1,751,395	1,301,826	34
Mississippi	1,551,372	1,289,600	20
Missouri	3,107,117	2,679,184	16
Montana	243,289	132,159	84
Nebraska	1,068,901	1,058,910	1
Nevada	42,334	45,761	Loss.
New Hampshire	411,588	376,530	9
New Jersey	1,883,669	1,444,933	30
New York	7,268,009	5,997,853	21
North Carolina	1,891,992	1,617,947	17
North Dakota	319,146	182,719	75
Ohio	4,157,545	3,672,316	13
Oregon	413,532	313,767	32
Pennsylvania	6,301,365	5,258,014	20
Rhode Island	428,556	345,506	25
South Carolina	1,340,312	1,151,149	16
South Dakota	401,559	328,808	22
Tennessee	2,022,723	1,767,518	14
Texas	3,048,828	2,235,520	37
Utah	276,565	207,905	34
Vermont	343,641	332,422	3
Virginia	1,854,184	1,655,980	12
Washington	517,672	349,390	28
West Virginia	958,900	762,794	26
Wisconsin	2,068,963	1,686,880	23
Wyoming	92,531	60,705	53
Total (for 45 States)	74,627,907	62,116,811	
Indians not taxed	44,617		

TERRITORIES	1900	1890	
Alaska (estimated)	44,000	32,052	
Arizona	122,212	59,620	
District of Columbia	278,718	230,392	
Hawaii	154,001	89,990	
Indian Territory	391,960	180,182	
New Mexico	193,777	153,593	
Oklahoma	398,245	61,834	
Indians, etc., on Indian reservations, except Indian Territory	....	145,282	
Total for seven territories, etc.	1,667,313	952,945	
Indians not taxed	89,541		

It is estimated that 84,400 persons in the service of the United States are stationed abroad;

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a census of Porto Rico taken by the War Department on October 16, 1899, showed a population of 953,243; the total number of Indians not taxed, in the states and territories, is 134,158.

The lowest rate of growth was in Nebraska (1 per cent) and in Kansas and Vermont (3 per cent). Maine shows an increase of 5 per cent, and New Hampshire of 9. The receding of population from the semi-arid parts of Kansas and Nebraska, and the end of the "boom" era, account for their slow growth; and their slow growth of population is by no means a fair index of the healthful, social, and economic condition of the states. They grew far too fast in preceding decades. Nevada has lost, as was expected, because of the decrease in the mining population. Texas has made the most noteworthy growth, not in the percentage of increase, but in absolute numbers. Along with Wyoming, Utah, Oregon, Montana, and Minnesota, it has profited most by immigration. It will probably not be many decades before Texas will outstrip every state in population except New York, Pennsylvania, and Illinois. The order of the most populous states now is, in even quarters of millions: New York, 7¼; Pennsylvania, 6¼; Illinois, 4⅞; Ohio, 4¼; Missouri, 3; Texas, 3; Massachusetts, 2⅞; Indiana, 2½; Michigan, 2½; Iowa, 2½; Georgia, 2; Kentucky, 2; Wisconsin, 2; Tennessee, 2.

Apart from the newest states which have shown a rapid rate of growth by immigration, the most noteworthy fact is the steady and healthful growth of the great manufacturing states: Massachusetts, 25 per cent; Connecticut, 20; Rhode Island, 25; New York, 21; Pennsylvania, 20; New Jersey, 30. In the middle west, Illinois, 23; Ohio, 13; Michigan, 20. The growth of Minnesota (34 per cent) is one of the most noteworthy facts shown.

Although the rate of increase is only 21 per cent, the Director of the Census has said that the total population of the country is at least a million more than was predicted by the best estimates. The higher percentage of increase in previous decades was due to a much greater extent to immigration; and, besides the decrease of immigration, there has been a smaller birth-rate, as was to be looked for.

The rates of increase shown by preceding censuses were: —

RATE OF INCREASE SHOWN BY EACH CENSUS

1800	35.10	1850	35.87
1810	36.38	1860	35 58
1820	33.07	1870	22.63
1830	33.55	1880	30 08
1840	32.07	1890	24.85

President Pritchett, of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, has made an interesting calculation of the probable rate of increase during the next century and a half. For 1910, his estimate is 94,673,000; for the year 1950, 190,740,000; for the year 2100, 1,112,867,000; for the year 2500, 11,856,302,000. Shades of Malthus, what a mass of humanity that will be!

A LAND OF GREAT CITIES

THE drift to the cities has not been as strong as it was during the preceding decade. Yet their growth in population has, of course, been much more rapid than the growth of the country. The increase of the whole population was 21 per cent; the increase of population of the 159 cities that have each more than 25,000 inhabitants was 32.5 per cent. In the decade from 1880 to 1890 it was 49.5 per cent.

The more one analyzes these statistics of population, the clearer it becomes that the decade has been one of natural and normal growth. It has been the decade distinctly of the increase of manufactures and of the growth of manufacturing populations. Hitherto the most conspicuous fact shown by the census was the growth of agricultural populations.

The cities of Massachusetts, for example, have increased 32 per cent, the increase in the whole state being 25 per cent. New Bedford shows 53 per cent, Fall River and Lawrence more than 40 per cent, Brockton 47 per cent, Worcester 40 per cent. All these are manufacturing cities. Unofficially it has been given out that the number of manufacturing establishments in the whole country has increased from 355,000 in 1890 to about 600,000 in 1900. The increase of manufactures is the most striking fact of the decade.

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The rank in population of the principal cities now is: —

RANK OF CITIES IN POPULATION

Cities	Population	Cities	Population
New York	3,437,202	Pittsburg	321,616
Chicago	1,698,575	New Orleans	287,104
Philadelphia	1,293,697	Detroit	285,704
St. Louis	575,238	Milwaukee	285,305
Boston	560,892	Washington	278,718
Baltimore	508,957	Newark	246,070
Cleveland	381,768	Jersey City	206,433
Buffalo	352,387	Louisville	204,731
San Francisco	342,782	Minneapolis	202,718
Cincinnati	325,902		

The balance between the urban and the rural population seems to be as nearly a wholesome and normal one, under modern conditions, as could be hoped for — a more wholesome balance than any European country presents. It gives evidence of the strong counter-movement out of cities to suburbs and to the country.

THE GROWTH OF EUROPEAN POPULATIONS

SIR ROBERT GIFFEN, the English statistician, has been forecasting the growth of population in European countries. He declared in an address in Manchester late in October, that the population of Europe and of countries whose people are of European origin was 170 millions a century ago; it is now 500 millions — practically a threefold increase. This rate is much larger, of course, than of any preceding century. War and pestilence have during the last half century done little to keep the population down, in comparison with their former devastations. The English race in both hemispheres has increased most rapidly, and Germany and Russia come next in the growth of population, for France and Austria have lagged very far behind — have, by comparison, been almost stationary.

The probability is that this total of 500 millions of European peoples will a century hence become 1500 millions or more. But there is no probability of any considerable increase in the yellow and black nations. We shall simply outgrow the "yellow peril."

Sir Robert extended his calculations to other subjects than population in the effort to make a fair measure of the relative economic and political power of each nation, with this result: The four great powers are the United States, the United Kingdom, Germany, and Russia, with France a doubtful fifth; and only these need to be taken into large calculations for the future.

"If," said he, "we consider that an empire like that of Britain has its strength rather diminished than increased by the possession of territories like India, then the United States having a larger European population than that of the British Empire may be considered the most powerful state in the world as far as population and resources are concerned. No doubt Russia has a much larger population, but the inferiority of the units is so great that the preëminence of the United States is not in question."

THE UNSOLVED PROBLEM IN CHINA

THE chief danger in the Chinese trouble that has kept the world in suspense, is yet, happily, avoided. The Powers have not dismembered the Empire nor fallen foul of one another. There may be no war for spoils nor the patching up of a makeshift arrangement to avoid war, but an enduring and satisfactory settlement as beneficial to China as to the western world. Such, at least, is yet the hope, though the future is uncertain. If it turn out so, the achievement will be more than a triumph of statesmanship; it will be a triumph of civilization, and a shining proof that the Hague Peace Congress stood for something more than a sentimental dream.

On October 2 France proposed to the other Powers a possible basis for peace negotiations. This contained six points: the punishment of guilty leaders, prohibition of the sale to China of munitions of war, indemnities for actual losses, a permanent foreign guard for Pekin, the dismantlement of fortifications, and foreign military control of the road from Pekin to Tientsin. Several Powers suggested modifications, and it was finally decided to permit the ministers in Pekin to open negotiations with the Chinese plenipotentiaries Prince Ching and Earl Li on those points, to which all were agreed, and to discuss among themselves those on which opinion was divided. After some delay this programme was carried out.

Meanwhile an expedition composed of British, French, German, and Italian troops

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was despatched to Pao-Ting-Fa, southwest of Pekin, where the Boxers had besieged and finally massacred a number of missionaries. The United States, Japan, and Russia declined to join in this expedition, and this seemed to indicate the line of cleavage between the Powers anxious for peace and those who might press hostilities further.

On October 20 came the most important development which the diplomacy of the far Eastern question has produced. England and Germany had concluded an alliance on terms, the full text of which every student of international affairs will have frequent occasion to refer to:—

"Firstly, it is a matter of joint permanent international interest that the ports on the rivers and littoral of China should remain free and open to trade and to every other legitimate form of economic activity for the peoples of all countries without distinction; and the two governments agree on their part to uphold the same for all Chinese territory as far as they can exercise influence.

"Secondly, both governments will not on their part make use of the present complication to obtain for themselves any territorial advantage in Chinese dominion, and will direct their policy towards maintaining undiminished the territorial condition of the Chinese Empire.

"Thirdly, in case of another Power making use of the complications in China in order to obtain under any form whatever such territorial advantages, the two contracting parties reserve to themselves the right to come to a preliminary understanding regarding the eventual step to be taken for the protection of their own interests in China.

"Fourthly, the two governments will communicate this agreement to the other Powers interested, especially Austria-Hungary, France, Italy, Japan, Russia, and the United States, and invite them to accept the principles recorded in it."

This ended doubt on one score, for Germany had from the beginning been the Power whose designs had remained undefined. Taken with Russia's previous declaration that she would withdraw from Manchuria "if the action of the other Powers be no obstacle thereto," this agreement seemed to insure the preservation of the Chinese Empire—at least to avoid danger of dismemberment by the Powers. It threw the whole weight of Germany, whose policy has hitherto been protective and exclusive, into the scale with England, Japan, and the United States, the nations that desire the open door; and it seems to make it certain that throughout the greater part of China, at least, this liberal policy will prevail.

This is a matter of great importance to the United States. But no nation will gain more from it than China will gain, if the Empire can be preserved. Behind economic and industrial freedom march Western civilization and all the active forces of the modern world. To one thing China's exclusiveness must yield—her own love of gain. Trade can conquer, and surely can civilize, faster than armies, and convert a people more quickly than missionaries.

In the meantime the Ministers of the Powers at Pekin have been holding conferences with the Chinese plenipotentiaries, in the effort to reach an agreement preliminary to a final agreement by the Powers themselves. One grave difficulty encountered is the punishment of prominent offenders.

It is certain that the Imperial Government itself attacked the legations. The concurrent evidence of trustworthy men of nearly all nations who were among the besieged makes this clear. The Chinese Government, in other words, fell completely under the influence of the Boxers. It thought to make an end of foreign influence in China. But the Chinese Government is capable of now pursuing a directly opposite policy, under the pressure of events. But who is the Chinese Government? If it be the Empress Dowager, there will continue to be instability at Pekin. If she retire or be deposed, and the Emperor assume real authority, by the help of foreign Powers the dynasty may possibly be maintained.

The Chinese plenipotentiaries, when this record is closed, are reported as declaring the negotiations hopeless. The Chinese government will not agree to the execution of some of the high offenders that the ministers are said to demand. Conjecture has a wide scope until the preliminary agreement of the ministers is discussed by the Powers.

In the meantime the best-informed men express the gloomiest views. Sir Robert Hart, who knows China and the Chinese perhaps better than any other European, declares the situation hopeless. Dismemberment at once or a swift conversion of the whole

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people to Western civilization are the alternatives that he sees. The great danger now seems to be that the Empire may fall to pieces by its own weight during the protracted discussions of the ministers and the later negotiations of the Powers themselves. The continued absence of any central government in China may seem to make military occupation a necessity.

In any event the decadent central government of the Empire will have to be stimulated to maintain itself and to exert a liberal influence, by the presence of the Powers and the fear of force. The intense national feeling of the Chinese may, and for the present probably will, preserve the Empire so long as there is even a show of central authority. But the inherent weakness of a central government made up of loosely joined provinces, each with a powerful viceroy, is indicated by the recent serious outbreaks in the south, which have interrupted commerce, and may cause fresh trouble with the allies.

One fact stands out as clearly as a bright star on a dark night: when we withdrew our troops we did a wise thing.

BARBAROUS REVENGE IN CHINA

ONE great blot on the conduct of the Powers in China is the shocking barbarities committed by some of the troops of some of the allies. No more sickening disgrace to Western civilization has ever been brought to light than these cruelties and horrors. The facts are too well attested to admit of denial. At the time of the Chino-Japanese war the world held up its hands in horror when it was reported that the Japanese had put prisoners to death. The fact was taken as proof that the nation was still semi-barbarous. But nothing like the wholesale massacres of all the men, women, and children in towns by the Russians in Manchuria was done by the Japanese. The scenes that followed the taking of Tientsin lacked none of the horrors that used to accompany the sacking of a mediæval town, and the ground marched over on the way to Pekin was left a hideous trail of ruin. Non-combatants were murdered for sport.

Most relentless of all have been the Russians. But against the Germans some well-authenticated accusations of gross cruelty stand. French soldiers have shown themselves lustful and lovers of art — ready to ruin women, and to risk their lives for a piece of lacquer work. In persistent and businesslike looting (fortunately for few worse crimes) some of the American troops disgraced themselves. The English have desecrated almost every Chinese institution. They have removed the tablets set up to the memory of the Manchu emperors, who are regarded as deities; and these have been sent to the British Museum. The British Museum contains other precious curiosities and works of art that have been got by conquerors; but this insulting pillage of the most sacred thing in all China causes a shudder of surprise and regret.

There was strong temptation and a great provocation to cruelty and plunder. But it is a sore pity, nevertheless, that the last year of the humanest of the centuries should find men, when released from the restraints of civilization, so close akin to man as he was before he developed civilization. The Boxer outrages on women of our own blood have indeed been avenged. But modern civilization did not demand their avenging in kind. The sickening aspects of this Chinese trouble are enough to make the whole world sad.

THE FUTURE OF CHINESE MISSIONS

THE status of the missionaries in China is one subject upon which an agreement must be reached. Lord Salisbury flatly declared last summer that they were not popular at the Foreign Office, because they often got into trouble and expected the government always to get them out again. Many public men (and not a few missionaries themselves) declare that the government should not concern itself about them, but that they should go where they please at their own risk, and take the consequences. But while the political cost of missionaries has been very serious, public opinion in every Christian country has been favorable to the government protection of them. After the severest criticism has been made of the conduct of some of them, the Christian world continues to give them credit for devotion and self-sacrifice. Public opinion still stands behind them, but probably with a diminishing enthusiasm.

To what extent they were a direct provocation of the recent anti-foreign outbreak must, after all accessible evidence has been weighed,

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remain a matter of opinion. No missionary is popular among the people whom he seeks to convert. In the very nature of the case, he is an irritant. He is a subvertive influence; and except to his converts, he is necessarily an object of suspicion, if not of hostility. But since events sharply call up the whole subject of missionary activity, the lay student of missions encounters deep-lying questions like these:—

When the Christian world in general held a more strenuous faith and believed that the heathen would suffer personal damnation, the impulse to save men's souls by preaching was stronger than it now is. We now live in a period of the comparative study of religions. The broad-minded Christian recognizes to-day that his own religion has gradually unfolded. We have discovered that religious beliefs and forms are everywhere a part of the social fabric, and that established institutions cannot be torn away from a body politic without endangering the whole organism. Has the evangelical force of Christianity not become weaker, then, fading away from the desire to save souls into a mere humane impulse to spread well-being and civilization?

If this be the tendency, does the work not appeal to a less vigorous kind of men than it formerly did?

Will the missionary of the future not be rather an advance agent of Western civilization than of the creed of the Christian church? Will he not be the medical and the educational missionary rather than the apostle of the faith?

But such questions, after all, have to do with the future rather than with the immediate present; for many of the missionaries are men and women who do yet hold the most rigid orthodox doctrines as they were more commonly held a generation ago.

There were in China last year 2500 Protestant Christian missionaries, and 5000 native Christian workers. The evangelical church membership numbers 100,000, and the community many more. There are 12 universities and colleges, 66 theological and training schools, and more than 200 other schools of higher instruction, with about 10,000 pupils, besides 30,000 who are taught in the village schools. The number of patients who receive medical treatment in hospitals and dispensaries is many times the number of converts and pupils. These are figures of Protestant missions alone. The Roman Catholics claim a million converts and a much larger ecclesiastical establishment in China.

These facts indicate that missionary activity has already taken the form of general education; and the older conception of mission work has yielded to the conception of it as a general civilizing influence rather than the direct propagation of the Christian faith.

A MISSIONARY'S OUTLOOK

A fresh statement, from the missionary point of view, of the present aspects of mission work in China, has been made for THE WORLD'S WORK, by the Rev. Frederick Brown, an American Methodist missionary of the most robust faith and type, a man of as sturdy a nature as the early heroic missionaries whose lives are a precious part of our literature. Mr. Brown, having escaped to Tientsin, guided the allied troops to Pekin. He said since his return to New York:—

"Recent experiences will not appreciably disturb the missionary. He went to China with a purpose, and he will not return till it is accomplished. He has been a person of very considerable influence in China, and his influence has been made greater by recent events. The heads of all the government universities and most of the foreign professors have been connected with missionary societies, and are really missionaries. They have connected themselves with government institutions because they felt that their influence would be broadened. Hundreds of men and women of the recognized missionary societies are doing educational work directly under the eye of the Missionary Boards. The education of the Chinese people, in fact, is in the hands of the missionaries. They have translated many educational books into Chinese.

"I cannot look upon the missionaries as meddlers. They have a right to be interested in the government of the country, for of their number are many of the most intelligent men in China. Before I left Pekin, after the siege, Minister Conger suggested that the missionaries should come together in a conference to formulate a plan for the future, in which foreigners were interested. This they did, and the result has been published world wide.

"But because I believe so thoroughly in the unselfish intent and wide influence of most of the missionaries, let it not be thought that any one who

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has lived and worked in China holds that there are no exceptions to the rule. We all have seen the missionary 'crank.' But such cases are uncommon, and they are not to any considerable degree to blame for the present state of things. The only suggestion that can be made regarding tactless missionaries is that the several societies and missionary boards use greater care in selecting candidates. They are likely now to do so.

"It has been asked whether the missionaries should be allowed inland and away from consular protection. This is entirely a matter of the missionary's personal risk. If the consul is unable to help him while he is doing what he feels to be his duty, the responsibility is his own. No missionary claims government protection while he is violating any treaty that has been made with China. The favored nation clause in the present treaty gives the missionary a right to reside in the interior and promises him protection. If that cannot be given, the Chinese promise to escort him to a port and to turn him over to the United States consul. No objection can be made to this, and if the government will allow the Chinese to evade their responsibilities, the missionary will have no help and will remain in the port near consular protection.

"After all, the present treaty is a fair one, and to it the Chinese government should be held:— 'Having stipulated for the exemption of Christian citizens of the United States and Chinese converts from persecution in China on account of their faith, it is further agreed that citizens of the United States in China of every religious persuasion and Chinese subjects in the United States shall enjoy entire liberty of conscience, and shall be exempt from all disability or persecution on account of their religious faith or worship in either country.'

"There can be no diminution of missionary zeal in China. If some have been killed, there are others ready to fill their places, and there always will be. The foreigners will not leave China nor will the Christian gospel. Plans may be modified, and the work will be carried on more judiciously and under better organization. There will be less conforming to heathen ways, and instead, perhaps more considerate attempts to teach the Chinamen the value of a better civilization and of true religion.

"The missionary has a duty deeper than temporary politics, a duty which no government or group of governments can perform. With the wisdom gained from bitter experience and with a larger hope, the missionary societies are planning for the work of the future. They need, and they will surely have, the good will and the aid of our own people. The present upheaval, notwithstanding bloodshed and war, presages a better day for China."

THE GENERALSHIP OF COMMERCE

COMMERCE must have its diplomacy no less than nations, and its generals, and its own policies and tactics. Especially is this true since the world has become so tightly wire-girt and so swiftly traversed that the whole earth is a market-place for every maker of wares for universal use.

But the mere making of wares of universal utility does not win a universal market, not even when the maker offers them cheaper than his competitors. Cheap and excellent manufacture is one thing. Effective massing and distribution is another thing. And herein comes the need of great generals in trade.

No better illustration of such a need could be found than is now given by the industrial condition of Germany. One of the great events of the latter part of the century has been the building-up of German manufactures. The government has in every way given its aid. The information collected and distributed for the guidance of manufacturers and traders is the most thorough and systematic in the world. The legend "made in Germany" stamped on manufactured articles of every kind caused consternation in England a year or two ago. In fact, all Germany that is not under arms is in the workshop, and the strides of German commerce are as remarkable as the rise of German scholarship was a generation ago, and as the rise of German military and political power was under Von Moltke and Bismarck. But now German manufacturers are feeling a restriction of their recent prosperity. The trade reports reflect it, and the commercial world is becoming aware of it. They are selling many wares without a profit.

And the reason is an unscientific preparation for the distribution of products. In one respect the great industrial movement of Germany has not been well generalled. The Germans have put all their capital into factories, buildings, machinery — plant. They have "fixed" their capital — made it stationary. They have laid too much emphasis on the making of things, too little on their distribution. After a period of most energetic production in Germany, in England, and in the United States, the Germans find that they lack mobile capital. Too much of their industrial strength is in camp. They are forced to

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borrow mobile capital from England. American and English exporters therefore are not yet finding German competition as severe as they feared, because of this lack of good commercial generalship.

This incident in German commercial experience, whereby German manufacturers are suffering a falling away of prosperity, would a little while ago have been explained as the manifestation of some unseen and mysterious force — explained on a wild theory of the necessary periodicity of prosperity and panics. It would even have been explained by reference to spots on the sun. But now even men who never read Bagehot begin to see that world commerce has its laws. It moves to the advantage of one people and to the disadvantage of another, not by accident nor chance, but in obedience to well-directed energy. But nowadays the vision of its generals must be world-wide. A continuous period of commercial prosperity may be won by the right knowledge of world-wide forces. Cheap material, efficient workmen, cost-saving machinery, cheap transportation, cheap insurance, sound money, good credit, effective banking and exchange, good telegraphic service, the effective policing of foreign ports and countries, favorable duties, trustworthy foreign agents and easy distribution in foreign lands, mobile capital, an accurate and fresh knowledge of foreign markets and of possible markets, — all these things and many more are necessary for the successful extension of any national commerce to-day. And when all these are had, generalship is still necessary.

CHARACTER THE BASIS OF TRADE EXPANSION

BUT it is not by generalship alone that we are winning foreign markets. It is by the development of the most efficient men in the workshops and all along the line to the ultimate maker of great contracts. The character of the British workman, who was for a long period the most efficient in the world, — as Carlyle expressed it, "the strongest, the cunningest, and the willingest our earth ever had" — is suffering gravely from the restrictions imposed on him by the trades unions. These limit the amount of work he shall do, restrict him in the use of machinery, and lessen his chance of individual development. For this reason among others, the distinction of the greatest efficiency, measured in the worth of his product, has passed to the American workman. Other reasons for the rise of the American workman to primacy will be found in the spirit of many American workshops, which is explained in an article in this magazine on the Betterment of Working Life.

In the last analysis permanent industrial success, as success of any other kind, rests on individual character and capacity. The nation that has the most efficient workmen, the wisest employers, the best masters of transportation, the most far-sighted merchants, the most accurate students of foreign peoples, all working together under the most capable leadership, will win the largest share of profitable commerce and will hold it. Success depends on individual character as well as on good generalship.

Yet in this imperial sweep of our activities which give such scope for individual character and ability as was never before open to men — for never before did commerce so directly depend on character and broad knowledge nor contribute so much to civilization and all the nobler arts — we are sometimes told by men who know nothing of the great forces of the modern world that chances for young men are lessened and that our commercial expansion is degrading the American ideal to a sordid view of life!

AMERICAN COMMERCIAL LEADERS

THE prodigious strides that we ourselves are making in foreign trade likewise demonstrate the value of good commercial generalship. The statement recently issued by the Bureau of Statistics of the Treasury Department shows that our export of manufactured articles alone (not our agricultural products) had for the nine months from January 1 to September 30, brought more than $1,000,000 a day including Sundays and holidays, or nearly $1,500,000 for every working day — a sum three times as great as the value of manufactured exports during the same months of 1900, and two-and-a-half times as great as in 1895.

The items of this increase are chiefly of those great industries that command managers of the highest ability — the products of iron and steel, of mineral oil, of copper, of

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wood, of leather, of cotton, agricultural implements, chemicals, cars, paper, tobacco, and the like. For instance, a Pittsburg car company in November received (in London) a contract for $5,000,000 worth of rolling-stock for South African railways. The bid of the American company was lower by a third than any European company's bid, and the time of delivery eight months less. And this is only one in a long series of contracts that American manufacturers have secured from South African railways.

American advance into European markets, so long as it was chiefly confined to agricultural products, was complacently regarded by European economists as only a natural result of the soil; for they forgot the important part that agricultural machinery and labor-saving transportation devices played. Good management and good generalship have had much to do even with the building up of our agricultural exports. One great American provider of meat-products maintains a more extensive and accurate meteorological survey of the world than any government, in order that he may forecast the needs and the buying capacity of the people of every country.

A fair statement of the trade relations of the three great manufacturing nations was made in the October number of *The Fortnightly Review* by Benjamin Taylor:—

"We are inclined to believe that German competition with us in the world's markets has reached its high-water mark. On the other hand, the real strength of the industrial competition of America has yet to be felt. The measure designed to revive the American mercantile marine did not pass through last Congress, but some measure of the sort will certainly become law within the next four years if the Republicans are confirmed in power. Even now American manufacturers are sending shipbuilding material to this country, not at a sacrifice and merely to lighten their stocks, but at remunerative prices. America has obtained and will retain the lead as the greatest iron and steel producer in the world. And as such she is compelled both to increase her home market by ship-building and to obtain foreign markets.

"As for American coal, it has certainly come to stay in Europe, though it may cease to come to Great Britain when our inflated industry is restored to normal condition. It is not necessary, however, for American coal to come into our ports in order to make a serious inroad upon our foreign trade."

PROFESSOR MAX MÜLLER

IN the death of Professor Max Müller the world lost one of its distinguished men, and England one of its most interesting personages. He belonged to a group who, during the last half century, represented Oxford to the outside world — an Oxford which was rather the expression of an *ethos* (as Oxford slang has it), *i.e.* an attitude, toward knowledge, than an aspect of knowledge itself. An Oxonian would never think of putting him along with Arnold, Newman, and Jowett, and on the surface his life seems to have had little in common with that of these men. But he represented a scientific ideal that was of the same stuff as Arnold's critical ideal, Newman's religious ideal, Jowett's ethical ideal, and with them he forms part of the literary humanistic movement of the middle of the century. All these men were interesting personalities rather than apostles of any enduring system of thought.

Max Müller's successor will probably be a man who represents the strenuous modern scholarship. For the days of the urbane and leisurely learning of the mid-century are numbered, and its literary aspects no longer command the attention they once did. They have given way to something more capable of standing the stress and strain of modern life.

It is too soon to estimate Max Müller's real achievement in the work of the world. He moved in the midst of hostilities and jealousies whose bitternesses have even crossed the Atlantic, to cloud the judgments of those who might otherwise be able fairly to judge his work. Popularly, his achievement appears to have been one of scientific scholarship. For his "Science of Language" has long been one of the few books on language that the public has cared to read, and Max Müller's name has long stood for a system of mythology that the general public, while really knowing very little about it, has elevated to a science. But his book on language and his system of mythology have neither of them ever taken a place among the serious contributions to the science of which he was professor at Oxford.

Granting this weakness, such books have their uses, and often no mean ones; his have undoubtedly paved the way among men who are not scholars, for a true conception of lan-

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guage and literature. The workers in this field are, as a rule, unable to see the wood on account of the trees, in the study of language confused by words, in the study of literature confused by books. So that these subjects still await a mind and hand like Max Müller's to infuse life into them.

A RIGHT INDIAN EDUCATIONAL PLAN

OUR North American Indians were once among the most expert basket-weavers in the world. Now only the older Indians know the art, and certain tribes whose work was incomparably fine and beautiful have already lost it. After much pauperizing under the abominable reservation system, it was decided that the Indians needed an industry to save them from sinking still lower. Lace-making, after Brussels and French patterns, was first superimposed on a Minnesota reservation, whence it has spread. Now lace-making, which has been developed by the European woman, fits her like a glove; and quite as truly, basket-making fits the Indian like a moccasin. Yet the Indians have succeeded at making lace, for they have remarkable skill with the fingers. But Commissioner Jones, the present enlightened administrator of Indian affairs, has taken up a task of human development in the right way and has made plans to revive basket-making by introducing it into the Government Indian schools, where the children, who now know nothing of this beautiful art, may learn from the only masters capable of teaching them, — their own people, directed by white teachers who know the needs of the constantly widening market. Hundreds of thousands of dollars' worth of baskets are imported from Japan and Germany every year — money which by every right should be earned by our capable and needy Indians; and better than the money they will earn is the satisfaction of doing what they do with surpassing skill.

A MODEL PUBLIC LIBRARY

ITS DEFINITE AND PRACTICAL UTILITIES — CHILDREN'S ROOM, INFORMATION DESK, INDUSTRIAL COLLECTION, TRADE CATALOGUES, "STANDARD LIBRARY" ROOM, AND BOOKS ON TIMELY SUBJECTS

BY

GEORGE ILES

MEMBER OF THE AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION

AS a model public library in a city of moderate size, we may take that of Providence, newly housed at a cost exceeding $450,000, of which more than $260,000 was a gift from the late Mr. John Nicholas Brown. Unlike the New England rule, its maintenance is only in part municipal, with a constant stream of gifts testifying to the esteem and affection of its public. This institution is chosen because it incorporates the best modern practice in its administration with some original features of great merit, the whole conducted with a courtesy, an enlightened helpfulness, not exceeded in the world.

First as to its architecture: the plans were worked out in daily consultation with the librarian, Mr. William E. Foster; the intention has been to design rooms of such form and size as will best accommodate the various departments of the library, and so group these together as to promote the convenience of the public and the efficiency of the staff. Instead of the old-time method of beginning with an ornamental shell, and disposing the interior to fit that shell, the interior has first been carefully thought out, and then an exterior of great beauty has enwrapped it, discovering, as in so many other cases, that beauty may be the natural efflorescence of utility. As becomes a public building in a thriving and wealthy city, the materials throughout are rich and the decoration sumptuous, presenting withal an unceasing lesson in that good taste which is the prime element in good art. The hazard of fire is minimized by disposing the boilers for heat and power in a separate building, and by a

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construction throughout of fire-proof marble, stone, and encased steel; the lighting is electric, preserving the purity of the air; the successive floors of the book-stacks are of thick glass to promote cleanliness and diffuse light. Swift electric lifts convey the books from four of the stack-stories. When a volume is to be dusted, it is struck over a bell-mouthed tube, through which a quick exhaust bears away every particle of dust.

From the handsome vestibule, we enter the large room devoted to children. The best books for the young are ranged upon its open shelves, and the tables are covered with illustrated magazines and papers. A lady of tact and training is in charge to aid the young folk in selection, and to answer the questions they are invited to ask, — a privilege freely exercised when their reading has to do with their lessons. Month by month, collections of books on birds or trees, on foreign lands or local history, are placed on the shelves, with intent to put a uniting thread through reading which otherwise might be haphazard and desultory.

Adjoining this large room for children is a smaller apartment where, on giving due notice, a teacher may bring her class, and find on a table the chief books in the library bearing on the theme of study, while the walls display every map and picture available for its elucidation.

We pass now to the main library. Its very full reference department is freely accessible; it contains many catalogues to tell the inquirer in what other libraries he may find books not to be had here. By a judicious plan, this library together with those of the Athenæum and of Brown University coöperate in their purchases, so as not to duplicate costly works seldom in demand; the three institutions jointly publish a monthly bulletin of accessions and other useful information. Beyond the limits of the Providence libraries, Mr. Foster exerts himself to procure loans from larger collections, whether in Boston, Washington, or elsewhere. This method is gradually becoming more and more general throughout the Union, so that to-day the common store of literature held by public, university, and state libraries is measurably at the service of a student anywhere in the land.

An admirable feature of the main room of Mr. Foster's is its Information Desk, where an officer of wide knowledge, long experience, and the patience of Job endeavors to reply to every query. As a rule, these questions are simple enough, coming as they do principally from visitors unfamiliar with indexes, catalogues, and bibliographies. At times, as when an inquirer asks how many toothpicks are exported from this country, a little delay is involved in the necessary correspondence. But taking one day with another, the "posers" are few, much fewer than one would imagine; and the desk, by its standing invitation, has a notable effect in furthering the usefulness of the library, and in giving an enlarged field to many a work of reference already in the homes of visitors. Opening from the main library is the periodical room. Here the shelves for the racks rise directly from the floor, economizing space where space is precious. The magazines equally with the filed newspapers are hospitably at the disposal of the public.

We return to the library proper and find its most striking department to be industrial. Providence is a city famous for its varied and ingenious manufactures; its machinery, machine tools, measuring instruments, silverware, and textiles are exported to every quarter of the globe. Every industry in the city has been canvassed with a view to its promotion by this library. Here are costly books of design from Paris, Berlin, and London to afford an architect an unhackneyed piece of decoration, or suggest to an inventor a better arrangement for a loom. Here, too, are beautifully illustrated books of birds, insects, flowers, and shells, abounding with hints to the devisers of new patterns and unwonted embellishments. These artists, indeed, are now asking for pictures of crystals and gems, for the revelations of the microscope and the polariscope, that nothing in air, earth, or ocean may be wanting in their quest for quaint and novel motives. For the convenience of copiers a draughting table is provided; near by is a dark room for the easier and speedier reproductions of the camera.

Noteworthy among the industrial books are the trade catalogues; these are issued as

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advertisements pure and simple, but none the less they contain much trustworthy information, a great deal of it not to be had elsewhere, and the illustrations are usually capital. The concerns which publish these books are beginning to charge for them, and many of them are well worth buying, as, for instance, the volumes which recite how the pressure blower is supplanting the tall chimney, and how aluminium is manufactured by electricity for uses as diverse as those of soup kettles and the circuits of telegraphy.

All that Mr. Foster has done to promote the industries of Providence he has repeated for every other interest of the city. Every historical, scientific, literary, artistic, educational, or philanthropical society within the gates of Providence can find its best and most helpful literature within these walls, to the end that the library may be the rallying ground and centre of all that makes for the culture and advancement of the community. In this important matter of a careful adaptation of the contents of his shelves to the wants and needs of his public, Mr. Foster has followed in the steps of that Nestor of American librarians, Mr. S. S. Green of Worcester. Let us now examine a distinguishing feature of the Providence Library, original with Mr. Foster, and also deserving unqualified praise.

One of the handsomest rooms in the building, richly and quietly furnished in carved mahogany, much resembles the private library of a scholar of wealth and taste. This displays Mr. Foster's "Standard Library," a collection of less than a thousand of the greatest books of all time, few of them less than fifty years old, all in the best editions, and many of them with rare and authentic portraits. The purpose throughout has been to present the literature of power as distinct from books of either information or entertainment. Here are Chaucer, Bacon, Shakespeare, Spenser, Milton, Burke, Tennyson, and Thackeray; Homer and Sophocles; Virgil and Horace; Goethe and Schiller; Dante and Tasso; and their peers — all with a free invitation to be taken down and read. In the circulating department these masterpieces are to be had in duplicates, but the splendid impulse of this throne-room of letters is directed to whoever is forming a library of his own. A book never does us so much good as when we possess it — when we are free to take it up next month or next year — when we infringe no rule as we mark its nubby passages, or refer on the fly-leaf to the pages we mean to re-read. Of golden value then are the intimations of such a store as this, winnowed by that patient breath of time which at last unerringly divides the literature of the ages from the books of a day.

Let us now pass to another feature of the Providence Library not, as far as I know, developed so fully elsewhere. Mr. Foster has observed the attraction conferred by timeliness upon a book or an article. He knows that what makes newspapers popular is news, and that the vogue enjoyed by an informing book largely turns upon its treating a question of the hour. Accordingly for several years past he has noted every morning the theme uppermost in the public mind, — whether a presidential canvass, a threatened strike, or aught else; he then has drawn up a list of every important book, report, pamphlet, or article in his library bearing on that topic, and the list has been posted in the main room and published in the local press. In this thoughtful fashion much of his store goes into active circulation instead of gathering dust on the shelves; while the public of Providence has a special opportunity to be well informed on current questions where, often enough, much first-hand evidence is in danger of being overlaid by later but less reliable testimony. In addition, Mr. Foster often chooses themes of more than fleeting interest, as Paris and the Exhibition of this year, or American Colonial Architecture, and focusses light upon them from sources all but forgotten.

Just as we leave the building we enter for a moment the handsome hall in which lectures and addresses on literary themes are given. At a touch a broad white sheet may be lowered for stereopticon illustrations. The walls are covered with strong burlap, to bear photographs and other pictures as one exhibition succeeds another in a round of informing delight.

By this time, I trust, the public library of Providence commends itself to you as it does to me, as a model of what such an institution should be.

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A FUR SEAL PUP. *From a photograph.*

DISCOVERIES IN OUR ARCTIC REGIONS

THE HARRIMAN ALASKA EXPEDITION — HUNDREDS OF NEW ANIMALS, INSECTS, AND PLANTS — AN UNKNOWN FIORD EXPLORED — ASTONISHING SCIENTIFIC RESULTS OF A SUMMER'S CRUISE UP THE COAST — A SUGGESTION TO AMERICAN MILLIONAIRES



From painting by L. A. Fuertes.

THE concrete results of an enterprise form an enduring basis upon which to build an estimate of its success. Let us say first of all, then, regarding the Harriman Alaska Expedition, that (with most of the collections still far from completely classified) it is already known that this party of scientists, in their two months' trip from Seattle to Bering Sea and back, discovered between *three and four hundred* species and subspecies of animals and plants new to science; made important changes in the best previous maps; discovered scores of unknown glaciers; and immeasurably increased our knowledge of the Alaska fauna and flora.

Thousands of the greatest men of our time are devoting their lives in every quarter of the globe to the search after those manifestations of nature still uncharted by Science, — thinking themselves amply rewarded if from time to time they can extend the dominion of the mistress they serve over a single new form of plant or animal life; and in the light of this, one need not point out the magnitude of this expedition's achievement during the two-months' cruise up the Alaskan coast.

HOW THE PLAN ORIGINATED

The story of the expedition is so suggestive in several special ways as to merit telling in detail. In the spring of last year Mr. Edward H. Harriman, of the Union Pacific Railroad, decided, instead of going to Europe, to take his family to Alaska for a summer's trip. Naturally enough he did not care to confine himself to the regular excursion routes and boats, yet the cost of chartering a special steamer seemed out of reason merely for a personal outing. In this dilemma he hit upon the happy idea of taking with him a party of scientists, the value of whose observations and collections would, he felt, more than justify the expense of the undertaking.

Here is the list which, with Mr. Harriman's family and friends, made up the party of fifty: —

BIOLOGISTS AND ZOÖLOGISTS

Dr. C. Hart Merriam, U. S. Biological Survey.
Dr. A. K. Fisher, U. S. Biological Survey.
Prof. William E. Ritter, University of California.
Prof. D. G. Elliot, Field Columbian Museum, Chicago.
Dr. Wesley R. Coe, Yale University.

ORNITHOLOGISTS

Chas. A. Keeler, Museum of California Academy of Science.
Robert Ridgway, National Museum, Washington, D.C.
John Burroughs.

BOTANISTS

Prof. William H. Brewer, Yale University.
Dr. William Trelease, Missouri Botanical Garden.
F. V. Colville, U. S. Department of Agriculture.
Thomas H. Kearney, U. S. Department of Agriculture.
Prof. De Alton Saunders, Brookings, S.D.

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GEOLOGISTS
Prof. B. K. Emerson, Amherst College.
G. K. Gilbert, U. S. Geological Survey.
Dr. Charles Palache, Harvard University.

ARTISTS
Louis Agassiz Fuertes (birds).
R. Swain Gifford.
F. S. Dellenbaugh.

PHYSICIANS
Dr. Lewis R. Morris.
Dr. E. L. Trudeau.

GLACIOLOGIST
John Muir.

PALÆONTOLOGIST, GEOGRAPHER, ETC.
Dr. W. H. Dall, U. S. Geological Survey.

MINING ENGINEER
W. B. Devereux, Glenwood Springs, Col.

FORESTER
Dr. Bernhard E. Fernow, Cornell University.

GEOGRAPHER
Henry Gannett, U. S. Geological Survey.

ANTHROPOLOGIST
Dr. George Bird Grinnell, Editor *Forest & Stream*.

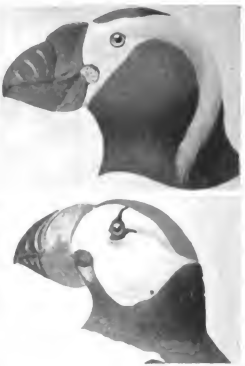
ENTOMOLOGIST
Prof. T. Kincaid, Seattle, Wash.

TAXIDERMISTS
E. C. Starks, U. S. Biological Survey.
Leon J. Cole, Ann Arbor, Mich.

PHOTOGRAPHERS
E. S. Curtis, Seattle, Wash.
D. G. Inverarity.

The larger portion of this impressive body of experts left New York on May 23d in Mr. Harriman's special train, and the complete expedition sailed from Seattle the last of May in the steamer *George W. Elder*.

The results of the admirable management and untiring effort have already been alluded to. Here is a summary of the discoveries in different branches of work, as far as can be ascertained before the collections are completely worked up and classified by the many specialists to whom this difficult task has been assigned: —

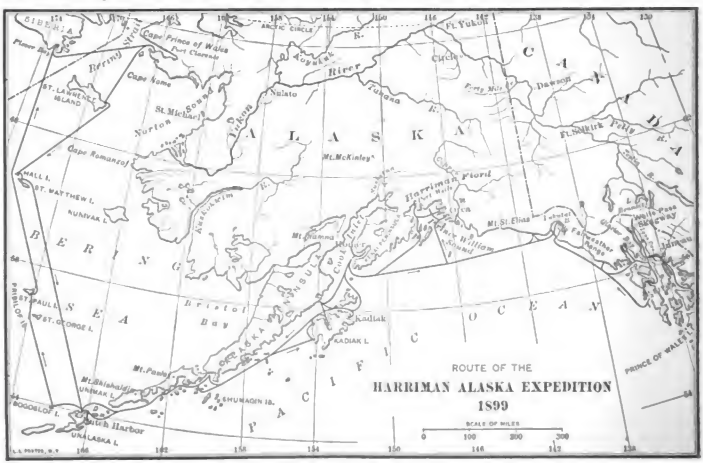


Painted by L. A. Fuertes.

HEADS OF PUFFINS.

NEW FOXES, SHREWS, AND OTHER MAMMALS

Twenty-six kinds of mammals new to science were found in the collection of 215



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Painted by Charles R. Knight.

THE KADIAK FOX.

One of the new mammals discovered by the Harriman Expedition.

specimens secured. Among these were two foxes, one larger than any North American species previously known, and marked by an enormous tail, — much constricted where it joins the body, then growing extremely large and bushy, and from this point tapering to the tip — which was named the Kadiak Island Fox (*Vulpes harrimani*); five species and sub-species of shrews, and five new forms of hares, besides lemmings, porcupines, spermophiles, and so on.

RARE SPECIES OF BIRDS

No new birds were found, but specimens of two very rare kinds, McKay's snowflake (*Passerina hyperborea*) and Kittlitz's murrelet, were collected; while the five hundred other specimens brought back extended the known range of many species, and in one instance supplemented facts previously gathered, so as to confirm the existence of an undescribed and unnamed sub-species.

CRABS, SEA-WORMS, AND OTHER MARINE INVERTEBRATES

The work in marine invertebrates was particularly successful. A small crab (*Pinnixa*), found living in the burrows of a sea-worm, and a shrimp were added to the known list of ten-footed crustaceæ. In a single group of sea-worms, known as Nemerteans, twenty-five of the thirty species collected were entirely new, and only two had been previously found in Alaska. One of these strange worms is fully six feet long and of a deep vermilion color; another of equal size is blood-red with a white head; and the zoologists declare that these creatures do not appear in such varied and striking forms anywhere else in the world. An estimate from



From a photograph.

GULLS IN FLIGHT AT THE BREEDING GROUNDS.

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From a photograph.

A "HAREM" OF FUR SEALS.

The solitary bull in the background has just been defeated by his rival in front after a fierce fight for possession of the herd.

the specialist in charge of this particular branch of research places the total number of new marine invertebrates as rather above than below *one hundred;* and one discovery of great importance was a new genus and species of *Enteropneusta* (*Harrimania maculosa*). This group of animals has long been the subject of the most animated discussion among zoölogists, many investigators holding that they are the starting-point of the backboned animals — a sort of link between the vertebrates and invertebrates; and in the opinion of Dr. Ritter this new species seems to settle the question in the affirmative.

Painted by L. A. Fuertes.

McKAY'S SNOWFLAKE.

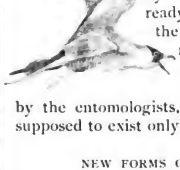
TWO HUNDRED INSECTS FORMERLY UNKNOWN

A dozen famous specialists are now at work studying and classifying the five thousand pinned insects (besides spiders and larval forms preserved in alcohol) brought back



Painted by L. A. Fuertes.

HEAD OF JAEGER.



by the expedition; and already it is known that of the nine hundred species represented two hundred have never before been described by the entomologists, and many more were supposed to exist only in Northern Europe.

NEW FORMS OF PLANT LIFE

In the botanical work, though one of the largest collections of all was made, it is still almost impossible even to guess at the results, since the reports of the foreign specialists engaged in working up particular groups have not yet come in. But probably ten new flowering plants are included, — among them a unique willow apparently growing nowhere except on the shores of Yakutat Bay; several fungi hitherto undescribed are included, and a number of new seaweeds (*Algæ*) are also already in evidence.

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GEOLOGICAL WORK

Collections of the Sitka black slates, the crystalline rocks at Plover Bay, and of the rocks of that strange freak of nature, Bogoslof Volcano, as well as of fossils of various kinds, are now being studied microscopically. In addition, many observations of glaciers were taken in the endeavor to throw light upon their apparently erratic waxing and waning which, though for centuries the subject of all sorts of speculations and wild guesses on the part of European geologists, still baffles scientific research. The Alaska glaciers are on such a grand scale compared with even the most famous European ones that they offer a peculiarly satisfactory field in which to test the various theories advanced.



From a photograph.

THE YAKUTAT WILLOW (*Salix amplifolia*).
A new species discovered by the Expedition.

CORRECTING THE COAST-LINE AND MAPPING GLACIERS

When the expedition left Yakutat Bay and went to Prince William Sound many changes were found necessary in the maps, for, particularly on the north and west sides, the Sound had never been accurately charted. Here, too, occurred the great find of the trip, geographically speaking, — a noble fiord, the existence of which had never before been suspected because a glacier almost bars its entrance: fifteen miles in length, this "Harriman Fiord" contained five new discharging glaciers. (Only twenty-two glaciers of the class known as "living" glaciers were observed during the whole voyage, though many hundreds of "dead" ones, — so called



Painted by Charles R. Knight.

KADIAK BEAR.
This is the largest species of bear known, often attaining the size of a full-grown ox. A medium-sized specimen was shot by Mr. Harriman on this trip.

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A PANORAMIC VIEW OF
One of the glaciers discovered in Prince William

because their fronts do not reach the sea and they do not therefore discharge icebergs, — scores of them formerly unknown, were examined and charted.)

Mr. John Burroughs describes this experience in his narrative of the trip as follows: —

"Later in the afternoon we ascended an arm of Port Wells more to the westward and entered upon a voyage of discovery. We steamed up to a glacier of prodigious size that reared its front across the head of the inlet and barred further progress in that direction — the Barry Glacier. According to the U. S. Coast Survey map we were at the end of navigation in these waters; but Mr. Harriman suggested to the Captain that he take the ship a little nearer the glacier, when a way seemed open to the left.

"The Captain naturally hesitated to enter it: it was unmapped and unsounded water.

"'Go ahead, Captain,' said Mr. Harriman; 'I will take the risk.'

"We went on under a good head of steam down this new inlet where no ship had ever before passed. Glaciers hung on the steep mountain sides all about us. One of these was self-named the Serpentine by reason of its winding course down from its hidden sources in the mountains — a great white serpent with its jaws set with glittering fangs at the sea. Another was self-named the Stairway, as it came down in regular terraces or benches. As we neared the front of this glacier the mountains to the left again parted and opened up another new arm of the sea, with more glaciers tumbling in mute sublimity from the heights, or rearing colossal palisades across our front. Another ten-mile course brought us to the head of this inlet, which was indeed the end of navigation in this direction. Subsequently this inlet was fitly named the Harriman Fiord, and the glacier at the head of it, Harriman Glacier."

A REMARKABLE PUBLICATION

These notable discoveries are to be preserved in a form quite commensurate with

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From photograph.

COLUMBIA GLACIER.
Sound, and named by the Harriman Expedition.

their importance. Mr. Harriman proposes to embody them in several volumes. One of these will contain a long narrative of the journey by John Burroughs, besides a dozen articles of general interest by other members of the expedition; and three or four will be devoted to the technical reports of fifty or sixty experts in the various special branches of research. Mr. Fuertes, upon whom the mantle of Audubon seems now to rest, has pictured in color all the most noteworthy birds of the region; Mr. Gifford and Mr. Dellenbaugh have painted and exhibited scores of views of the glaciers, mountains, sunsets, land-and-sea-scapes, and natives that passed like a panorama before their eyes; and Mr. Walpole was sent to Alaska specially, after the expedition returned, to paint some of the wonderful orchids and other flowers. A great many of these paintings have been fac-similed in color by the most expert lithographers, and in addition some hundreds from the thousands of photographs taken have been selected for reproduction by photogravure and pen drawings. The popular volume alone will contain nearly a hundred of these photogravures, more than thirty colored plates, and probably two hun-



From a photograph.

BOGOSLOF VOLCANO.

The new cone, which was suddenly cast up out of the sea a few years ago, is shown on the right, still smoking. The older extinct one appears in the distance.

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From a photograph.

HARRIMAN GLACIER.

At the head of Harriman Fiord — both fiord and glacier first made known by the Harriman Expedition.

dred line drawings; so that, presented on an all-rag paper and handsomely bound, it will form perhaps the most elaborate work of travel and exploration ever issued in this country.

A SUGGESTION TO MILLIONAIRES

Hardly less important than the actual fruit of the expedition is its value as a sign-post to our multi-millionaires. A little while ago a Western man of vast wealth was heard to complain to a friend that he did not know how to spend his money satisfactorily. We venture to believe that this is an embarrassment commoner than people often realize. Only the distorted imagination of the professional agitator and the sensational press really conceives our wealthy men as a class apart, entirely engrossed in oppressing the widow and the orphan in order to swell their bloated money-bags. With the great increase in the number of people possessing large fortunes, there has come even a greater growth of the sense of responsibility. When all his own wants are supplied the average human being can hardly help thinking of others; and, in addition to the natural and universal desire to do something that will preserve his name to posterity, the man of fortune is more than likely to have an ideal (carefully hidden from the world, no doubt) of doing good with his money, and of using his power to advance civilization.

Mr. Harriman's Alaska Expedition and its magnificent results seem to indicate one true solution of this problem, and it is to be hoped that the great field lying open before them will prove attractive to our American rich men who are tired of the game of mere money-getting.



From a photograph.

BARRY GLACIER,

which almost bars the entrance to Harriman Fiord.

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LOOKING OUT OF THE WINDOW OF A MODEL FACTORY.



THE BETTERMENT OF WORKING LIFE

THE SOCIAL ENGINEER — IMPROVEMENT OF FACTORY CONDITIONS — WHAT A NUMBER OF MANUFACTURERS HAVE DONE FOR THEIR WORK-PEOPLE — "PHILANTHROPY" SUPERSEDED BY PROFITABLE MUTUAL INTEREST

BY

R. E. PHILLIPS

[The author of this article made a visit to the factories that he describes to get the facts at first hand, and what he has written was written from his own observations.]



One way of registering complaints and suggestions.

THE most important subject in our social welfare is the well-being of working life. There is no other question in social economy comparable in significance to this. With the increasing organization of industry is the lot of the individual worker getting worse or is it getting better? The following first-hand observations of experiments at cooperation in interest, but not directly in profits, made in Cleveland, Pittsburg, and Dayton, Ohio, seem to me to show a tendency toward better working conditions and to answer the question whether the betterment of working life pays.

A committee of prominent business men of Cleveland, Ohio, appointed last October by the Chamber of Commerce, made a report on plans for industrial betterment that had been adopted in other cities, including recommendations to employers of working-people in Cleveland. The result was the appointment of a Chairman of an Industrial Committee, whose duties are to act as adviser on social betterment. To the city of Cleveland, then,



THE NOON HOUR

In this factory the workmen have reading desks and chairs, with a piano and many such conveniences.

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LUNCH-TIME—THE OLD WAY.

belongs the honor of having the first Social Engineer.

About thirty factories and stores in that city are now carrying out various plans for the betterment of their working-people. The efforts of most of them to improve working conditions have been made under unfavorable conditions of buildings or of work. The results are therefore of exceptional interest and importance.

The Cleveland Hardware Company, for example, wished to equip a lunch-room in the factory, in order to keep their men from the near-by saloons at lunch-time, and because they believed that a demonstration of a practical interest in their welfare would pay. But every foot of space in the factory was in necessary use. They had to make room, as it were, by force. The first step was to overhaul and clean the whole factory. The result was that kitchen space was found.



HEATING COFFEE—THE OLD WAY.

The kitchen thus provided for was a room 9 feet square, at the end of a corridor between two buildings. But not half the problem was yet solved. There must be a lunch-room for 350 men. Folding tables were put in the aisles between the machines, a table to every 6 men. A monitor is assigned to every table. At eleven o'clock he takes to the kitchen a square tin box arranged with 12 small compartments, where individual orders are placed. Thus a rush at the serving-window is avoided. The men who do not care to form sets go to the window after the monitors have been served and order what they wish. In this way, the entire force of 350 is served within ten minutes after the noon whistle.

The next step was to add to the bill of fare, which at first contained only coffee and sandwiches. New things were added — Hamburg steak, 2 cents; pork and beans with a slice of bread, 3 cents; half a dozen crackers with cheese, 2 cents; pie, 3 cents; mashed potatoes, 1 cent; cooked meats with bread, 6 cents; puddings, 3 cents; oyster soup (on Fridays), 5 cents; and so on. The company's purpose was to do away with all suspicion of charity and to give the men wholesome food at the lowest price. On some of the items the company makes enough profit to cover waste and expenses. The pies, for instance, cost 12 cents apiece. They are cut into 5 portions and sold at 3 cents a portion. On coffee, sold at 1 cent a pint, there is a loss. On the whole the company neither loses nor makes. The restaurant pays for itself, but makes no profit.

Additions to the bill of fare required a bigger kitchen. The first kitchen became a serving-room, and a bigger kitchen was made in the corridor between the rolling-mill and the foundry, 7 × 50 feet instead of 9×9 feet. The added equipment cost nearly $200.

Then, cleanliness and material improvement naturally led to a consideration of other needs. A branch of the Cleveland Library was established at

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THE DINING-ROOM WHICH HAS SUPERSEDED THE OLD "HAND-TO-MOUTH" METHODS
(see facing page).

the factory. Then an idea that brought excellent results was coined out. It was an idea that smacked somewhat of the old attitude of charity, but it was a most interesting one. Prominent men and women all over the world were asked to donate to a private factory library one book each, with the signature of the donor on the fly-leaf. The men thus got an autograph library of 300 volumes, selected by the world's prominent citizens. Some of the letters sent by the donors are interesting. For instance, Mr. Cornelius N. Bliss wrote: —

"I am sending to you to-day by express, two volumes of 'Contemporary American Biography.' As almost every man whose name appears in these volumes has worked his way up from small or very moderate beginnings to positions and prosperous conditions, it occurs to me that I can make no more acceptable gift to the workers of your company, who are engaged in similar efforts, which are certainly attainable under our beneficent form of government by every American Citizen."

Captain Robley D. ("Fighting Bob") Evans sent a copy of "With Sampson in the War," with a characteristic "fighting letter": —

"I send you to-day a book for your Library, and hope your men may enjoy the account of our feeble efforts to square the *Maine* account."



A FACTORY LUNCH CARD.

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A FORMER VIEW ALONG A RAILROAD LEADING INTO DAYTON, OHIO.

The interest taken by the men in these books has repaid the company many times for the trouble of procuring them. It stimulated the reading of the books from the public library. From a circulation of 84 in October, last year, the first month the books were drawn from the library, the number now read in the factory averages about 400 — or more than a book per month for each man.

Work and conditions suggested further improvements. In the rolling-mill, for instance, prostrations frequently occurred. A change was made in the time-schedule. For two shifts of 12 hours were substituted three of 8 hours each. The result was, to the men, better health, fewer prostrations, and the same wages; to the company, greater output without added expense. By means of air-shafts over the furnaces all prostrations were finally avoided.



THE SAME REST-ROOM UNDER MORE FAVORABLE CONDITIONS.

In cases of accident or sickness the men formerly looked to the company for assistance, and it was given. But the plan proved unsatisfactory. It caused dissatisfaction. Moreover, some of the men pretended illness and shirked their work. The company proposed



SAME VIEW SHOWING IMPROVEMENTS DUE TO PRIZES OFFERED BY A DAYTON FACTORY

a Benefit Society. The idea was promptly adopted, and such a society was organized. Of this, the workers have entire charge. The company contributed $100 to start the fund and donated the services of a clerk to keep



A MAKESHIFT REST-ROOM FOR FACTORY WOMEN.

the society's books. They employ no one who is unwilling to join the society.

Thus the company is relieved of all responsibility for sickness or disability; it is not accused of unfairness or injustice in distributing benefits; and the men in accepting the society's benefits for which they themselves

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pay, do not consider themselves objects of charity.

Here, then, are details showing how plans for betterment were evolved in one factory under unfavorable conditions. What are the results? Does it pay? The results that I have explained prove that it does pay. Naturally, different men regard benefits in different ways. One man, finding that the company sold a 12 cent pie for 15 cents, accused the managers of conducting the restaurant as a money-making scheme. Again, last June, 30 machinists went out on a strike, though none desired to do so. Some, in fact, at first refused to obey the Union's order. This attitude of its workers the company attributes largely to improved working conditions.



HOW WORK USED TO BE DONE IN ONE FACTORY.

Problems similar to those here indicated confront other employers. In the case of the Sherwin-Williams Paint Company, in Cleveland, for example, lack of room, keen competition, and the necessity of considering all expense of improvement a part of the cost of production, are among the chief difficulties. Here, actual factory conditions offered the first suggestion. Employees brought their lunches and ate them where they could. Many sat on window-ledges; some on the work-room floors. Coffee was heated on the heaters and radiators. Then lunch-rooms were provided — one for the factory hands and one for the girls, foremen, and office force. Here the employees of all departments brought their lunches. The next question was, why not provide lunches for them? First, hot coffee? This meant cups, a stove, coffee-urns. These, with the coffee, were provided. Having provided part of the lunch, why not provide the rest? Hot soup was added; then bread and butter; then meats and fruits. A good luncheon was thus arranged. One of the items, either soup or stew, together with tea and coffee, is served free of charge. The rest is served at cost. The usual expense for lunch to employees is 6 or 8 cents; by ordering everything on the bill the expense cannot exceed 17 cents.



HOW IT IS DONE NOW IN THE SAME FACTORY.

Managers and employers often lunch with employees, thus meeting them on common ground. Their very willingness to do so counts for much in good will, sympathy, and in the consequent interest of employees in the work of the company, and goes far toward making the plans for betterment a success.

The company believes that health pays. Rest-rooms for all women employees have been fitted up and comfortably furnished with cots and chairs. Bath-rooms, equipped with tubs and shower-baths, are located in various parts of the factory. When

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A FACTORY WHICH TREATS ITS EMPLOYEES AS SOMETHING MORE THAN MACHINES.

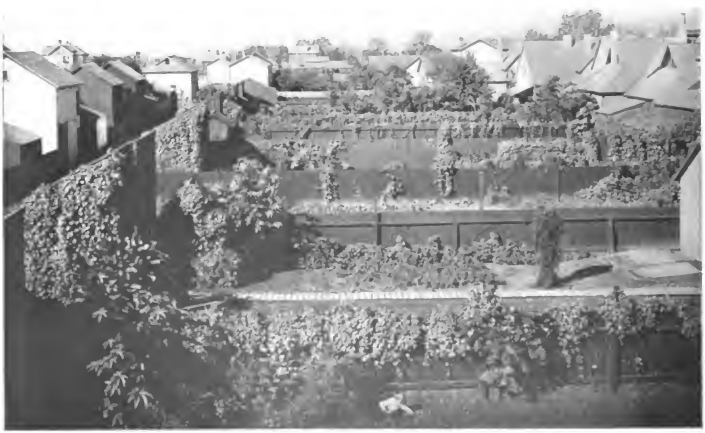
shower-baths were first considered, it was decided to put them in for the men only. The women heard of this. They demanded shower-baths for themselves, and their demand was granted.

The Cleveland Telephone Company met with the opposite experience. Their girls refused to use the baths provided. They considered it a reflection on their personal cleanliness.

In the dry-color department of the paint-factory, the shower-baths are compulsory. Moreover, the company supervises the clothes that the men wear, because in their work there is great danger from lead-poisoning. A clean suit of clothes is given to every man in the department every day. The men start out with two suits apiece. The first day the clean one is worn next the skin; the next day this suit is worn outside and another clean one is put on underneath. In this manner, the men are protected.

The plan shows interesting results. The foreman of this department says that during the four months since its adoption not a single case of sickness nor a symptom of poisoning has occurred. Formerly, at least 20 per cent were constantly ill.

Again, before clean clothes and compulsory baths, the average time of service in that department was a month and a half. Since



INFLUENCING THE HOMES OF THE WORKERS.

The results of prizes offered by factory owners to their employees for the most attractive back yards.

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AN UNSIGHTLY CORNER.

then, no one, on account of sickness, has left the department. These results mean financial advantage, personal betterment, and working harmony.

Once a week in the factory of the Cleveland Window Glass Company, a discussion takes place upon some topic of business interest. Written questions are handed in advance to the employees. The answers enable the company to judge of the efficiency of its working force. They indicate also the possibility of educating men from the ranks to positions as foremen and salesmen, thus obviating the necessity of relying upon outside assistance. Here is one example: Two years ago a young man was taken into the employ of the company at a salary of $12 per month. Soon the company needed a salesman. Largely through information obtained in these discussions he was enabled in a short time to fill the position of salesman at a salary of $25 per week instead of $12 a month.

Occasionally the employees found difficulty in knowing where to go for information upon topics proposed for discussion. This was especially the case with the boys. The company suggested attendance on night schools. Last year 20 boys attended them. So, again, the results are practical and of mutual advantage to company and worker.

Rest-rooms for women have been noticed; but rest-rooms for men are a new departure. One of the first examples is offered at the barns of the Big Consolidated Street Railway Company in Cleveland. Formerly, conductors and motormen waited outside the barns until their runs began. Now a room inside has been fitted up and comfortably furnished. A pool table is one of the furnishings.



HOW THE CORNER WAS TRANSFORMED BY A BOY INTO A PRIZE WINNING EXHIBIT.



A "TRAVELLING" LIBRARY—FOR THE FREE USE OF ALL THE EMPLOYEES.

On the top floor of one of the buildings of the Cleveland Twist Drill Company a similar room, about 100 feet long by 50 wide, has been fitted up as a combined smoking, reading, and lunch room. Substantial food is here served at cost. After lunch the men light their pipes and lounge around the room, reading or resting. In the centre of the room, a reading-table, with chairs on each side to accommodate 25 or more men, is usually crowded during the noon hour. Others take their books and periodicals to various parts of the room. About 210 out of 230 employees use this room and pay for their luncheon.

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The others bring their own luncheons. All, of course, are invited to make use of the facilities offered, whether they eat there or not.

One feature of special interest in this factory is the system of paying for suggestions tending toward improvements in factory methods and management.

One of the first suggestions was adopted. The drills made by the company are straightened before they are sent out. A drill is laid on a block of metal whose upper surface is smooth and highly polished. By looking toward a strong light and rolling the drill back and forth, the inaccuracies, if any exist, are discovered. This work requires great accuracy and close application, and it is exceedingly trying to the eyes. Formerly the work was done in a large room with a number of large windows. An employee suggested partitioning the room, painting the walls green, and hanging green shades at the windows. Fifty dollars was paid for





HOW ONE STREET-CAR LINE HAS LOOKED OUT FOR ITS CONDUCTORS AND MOTORMEN.



A PRACTICAL DEMONSTRATION TO EMPLOYEES DURING A FACTORY CONVENTION.

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this suggestion. In return the company obtained the use of half the original room for other purposes, and an increase of 15 per cent in the work done in the green room. As this increased output has already amounted to several thousand dollars, with a better quality of work, the company lost nothing.

In the tempering room, employees work in front of furnaces. Their schedule calls for 10 hours' work a day. Shower-baths were put in, and 30 minutes each day was allowed the men, on the company's time, for baths. The result was that more and better work was done in 9½ hours than had been done in 10 hours.

Better work in this department resulted in another saving to the firm. In tempering, the drills are heated and then plunged into water. By careful handling in this process, they may be made fairly straight. With occasional baths during the day, the men exercised greater care. As a result, less time and labor were needed in the straightening department.

When asked about the baths, the foreman of the tempering-room said that every year previously he had been obliged to stop work; this year he was able to continue without the usual rest. He added that he would rather go without light at home than without baths at the factory.

Air-pipes have lately been placed in the annealing-room. The result is not only better working conditions for the men, but a fourth greater output for the company. That the company receives its share of the benefit from its efforts to improve conditions of work is shown by the details just given; that the men appreciate these efforts in their behalf is shown by the following letter to the company, dated August 21, 1900, and signed by all the employees: —

"We, the undersigned, in the employ of the Cleveland Twist Drill Company, grateful for the many comforts and conveniences so thoroughly and conveniently furnished by this firm, take this method of expressing our thanks for them, together with a sincere wish for the continued prosperity of the company."

In the factory of H. J. Heinz, of Pittsburg, betterment began by curtaining off one end of a working-room for use as a lunch-room. It accommodated 30. The present lunch-room accommodates about 300. At first a lunch was served to factory hands for 11 cents. For this same menu the managers of departments paid 19 cents. They were satisfied; the factory hands were not. They were finally charged 4 cents per week for tea, coffee, or milk every day. They bring their own lunches. This is the plan now in operation. It gives satisfaction to all.

On last Christmas Day, the factory hands, office employees — all, in fact, connected in any way with the company — gave an entertainment. The room in which it was held was crowded to overflowing. The owner had long considered the idea of building an auditorium for just such occasions. This experience confirmed him in his purpose. The plans of a large factory building then in course of construction were changed to include a room about the size of an ordinary theatre. This room is thoroughly equipped with stage-fittings and scenery. It seats about 500. At the right of the audience room is the managers' dining-room; at the left, a second dining-room for women. These are so arranged that, should occasion demand, they can be opened into the main room and increase the total seating accommodations. It is the purpose of the company's president to offer the use of the auditorium to residents of the neighborhood — non-employees — for public gatherings.

The extension of influence here indicated leads to a consideration of the plans for betterment in one factory where this feature has been especially studied and developed.

In 1895 the conditions that prevailed in the factory of the National Cash Register Company at Dayton, Ohio, were such as prevail to-day in most factories throughout the country. Good wages were paid; in return, the company expected good work. In the contrary event, vacancies occurred. Wages, only, constituted the basis of relations between employer and workers. What the results in this factory show is, that betterment of conditions under which wages are earned is a practical business consideration.

THE ORIGIN OF A FACTORY BETTERMENT

In 1895 cash registers to the value of $30,000 were shipped by this company in one order to England. The whole lot was

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returned on account of defective workmanship. This led the company to a consideration of a change in factory methods.

The first step was to give the most complete information possible to all employees regarding the details of the business. This was accomplished by frequent meetings, by factory publications, and announcements. Next, it was decided to educate the employees — each in his special line of work. Meetings were held for this purpose, at which topics of business interest were discussed; primers, compiled by practical mechanics, were distributed in the machinery department; prospective salesmen were required to meet under a practical instructor for a six weeks' training before they were allowed to go on the road.

At first, the motives of the company were misunderstood and misconstrued; but by means of lectures illustrated by stereopticon views, where the advantages to be derived from intelligent coöperation were shown; by repeated frank and open statements of its motives in requesting the coöperation of its workers; and, finally, by showing its interest in the condition and welfare of its people in many practical ways, the company succeeded little by little in proving that its motives were meant for the highest good both to company and employees; and they changed their attitude from indifference to loyal and enthusiastic support.

PAYMENT FOR SUGGESTIONS

One of the plans that contributed to this result was to pay for suggestions. A series of cash prizes, ranging from $5 to $50, and amounting to $1230 each year, is offered for the best suggestions made by factory employees, except heads of departments and assistants. An average of 4000 suggestions are received each year. About one-fourth of these are available. Here are some results to company and workers: For six suggestions, cited as fair examples, $165 was paid. From the resulting improvements the company saves $855 dollars a year!

Many suggestions are received whose money value cannot readily be computed. In one case, for instance, a suggestion was adopted which led to the improvement of the device for printing advertisements on the backs of paper checks issued by a certain style of register. While this is valuable, its *exact* value cannot be determined.

Of suggestions offered by heads of departments and others who receive no prizes, two have recently been adopted which result in a saving to the company of about $8000 a year. These instances show cash returns; far above this, however, the company places the resulting tendency of the plan toward increased efficiency, interest, and coöperation by the whole body of employees.

Another plan adopted was the introduction of piece-work. Here is the result in one department, best shown by the following table: —

RESULTS OF TIME-WORK AND OF PIECE-WORK

Year	Average Daily Output represented by	No. of Employees	Average Daily Earnings	Labor Cost to Company
Before Piece-work was Introduced				
1897	77	72	$1.10	$1.09
After Piece-work was Introduced				
1898	86	68	$1.19	$1.00
1899	127	88	1.18	.91
1900	135	95	1.18	.91

The result, as will be seen, is a constant decrease in productive cost and a corresponding increase in wages.

In every department similar results were obtained. The main point is that in order to obtain the desired coöperation, plans were adopted which made it advantageous to employees and at the same time offered a paying investment to the company. This idea — mutual advantage, without charity — is the foundation of practical and successful betterment.

Having thus aroused an interest in their people, the next step was to indicate an interest in them by improving conditions under which work was done. The first effort in this direction was to make the factory surroundings and working-rooms as attractive as possible. Flowers, shrubs, and vines were planted wherever possible, near the factory. A lawn of several acres took the place of weeds and stone. The appearance of the whole factory, from one of unattractive dinginess, was changed to most attractive brightness and cheerfulness. The next steps were to clean the factory buildings, to enlarge the windows, to paint the exterior a bright and

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attractive color, and to provide a force of janitors, uniformed in white, to care for the factory and the grounds.

HEALTH AND SCHEDULE OF WORK

In addition to these changes, especial attention was paid to the health of employees. Medicines were supplied free of charge to every one who needed them. Bathrooms, both for men and for women, were put in all the buildings. These rooms, while thoroughly clean and comfortable, are neither elaborate nor expensive. They are of course free to all employees, each of whom is allowed one bath per week, occupying 20 minutes of the company's time.

These changes and innovations were of course gradual. The next important step was to reduce the working schedule of men from 10 to 9½ hours, and of women from 10 to 8 hours, a day. The pay remained as before on the basis of 10 hours a day. This recognition of the needs and comforts of employees resulted in increased effort on their part. More work was accomplished after the reduction than before. In one department, for instance, under the 10 hours schedule 89 employees produced an average daily output of 52 parts of a certain kind of machine; working 8 hours per day, the number of women employed in that department was decreased from 89 to 77, and the average daily output on the same work increased from 52 to 59. The average daily earnings also increased during this period from 89 cents to $1.06 for each employee. The women who stopped work in this department were put to work in other parts of the factory. This shows that nothing was lost under the more favorable conditions in one department. Similar results were attained throughout the factory.

The company employs about 250 women. After reducing the schedule of working hours, one of the first improvements was that of fitting up a women's lunch-room. It required a year to accomplish it. At the end of that time a large room on the fourth floor of one of the factory buildings, formerly used as an attic and storeroom, was changed by the addition of windows, chairs, and tables into a plain but satisfactory lunch-room. Here lunch is served at a cost of 1 cent per day to each girl. They take turns in preparing and serving it. The company has organized a cooking-class under the direction of an experienced teacher. The class now has about 200 members. It meets twice a week for lessons. The price charged for each meal — 1 cent — is about one-fourth of its average cost to the company. Since the addition of the lunch-room the increased average output in all the women's departments has amounted to *six* cents per day.

Adjoining the lunch-room is a rest-room, fitted with cots and easy-chairs for the convenience and comfort of the women. There they have placed a piano, purchased at their own expense. Once a week a "travelling" library is wheeled into the room, with books belonging to the company or sent from the Dayton City Library, of which the factory is a branch. Elevators have been provided to take the girls to and from their work; tall-backed chairs with foot-rests have replaced the former benches and stools in their work-rooms; and with two recesses each day (included under shorter hours) and the opportunities for general improvement, the advantages of these women among factory women of similar position are unique. The results, in added interest in their work, and in the enthusiasm with which they carry out the company's request for intelligent coöperation, are remarkable. Moreover, constant social meetings under proper conditions have had an important moral and intellectual effect upon them. On this point, the forewoman of one of the departments said: "I know every one of my girls personally, and can vouch, without exception, for their high standard of morality." Such, it was added, was not the case under the former system. Now, too, the girls, almost without exception, are broader intellectually than before. Now they read books of recognized merit; before, they read trash, if they read anything. The illustrated lectures in the factory have given them an idea of what is going on in other countries, and in different parts of our own country. Formerly, they knew and cared nothing for these things. They now have a new attitude toward their work, a new view of life, higher ambitions, broader ideals, character — these illustrated in their homes and in their everyday work in the factory.

Formerly, out of 52 girls in one department, 5 or 6 were absent on account of

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sickness; but now, from an average of 115 employes, 1 is the average of absence.

For the men employed in the factory less has been done than for the women, because they have responded less readily to advances made by the company. They are beginning to realize, however, that the baths, the library advantages (they have the same advantages as the women, including the "travelling" library), well-lighted and well-ventilated working-rooms, are not intended to take the place of good wages. The company has provided two large lecture-rooms — one at the factory and one in the city of Dayton — where well-known speakers are invited to address the employees, both men and women. These lectures are always attended by large numbers of the workingmen, who invariably show their interest by giving the speakers a hearty welcome. Under the new working conditions there was practically no sickness among the men in the factory. In view of this fact and to insure itself further against the possibility of sickness, the company decided to employ no one without a physical examination. The first of these examinations, conducted by physicians employed by the company, was held in June of last year.

One of the workingmen now employed in the machinery department was formerly employed in the same department in another factory. His statement was, that the difference between the conditions in the two factories was "the difference between the place I hope to go and the place I hope never to go."

In another case one of the men employed on the grounds was seen pulling weeds. He was working with more than usual vigor, and said, in explanation, that he always liked to do his work as well as he could because John liked to see things looking fine. It was discovered that "John" is the president of the company. In nearly all cases the men who mentioned the company in any way spoke of it as "our" company. In Dayton they tell the story that for this very reason a certain well-known financier decided not to enter into business competition with it.

COMMUNITY BETTERMENT

Having secured in the ways mentioned the sympathy and active coöperation of its people, the company took the important step of extending its influence to the community. The suburb in which the factory is situated was formerly known as "Slidertown." The people who lived there were for the most part poor, living in tumble-down huts and shanties. They cared little for making their homes attractive. This air of shiftlessness suggested the name by which it was known. Through the initiative of the company's officers, the name was changed to "South Park." An effort was made to interest the people living there in its improvement. With this end in view a series of prizes, amounting to $250 a year, was offered for the most attractive front and back yards, the best effects in window-boxes, and the most effective results in vine-planting. To show the people how to go about such improvements, lectures, illustrated by stereopticon views, were given by the company. In these practical methods of gardening were indicated. Examples were also shown of successful and unsuccessful results.

In continuation of these efforts, two acres of ground were provided by the company for the purpose of interesting the boys of the neighborhood in gardening. This plot was divided into 43 small garden-beds, with one boy in charge of each. Fifty dollars in prizes was offered to the boys obtaining the best results. Lessons in practical gardening were given by the stereopticon. The result was that Slidertown began to justify its name of South Park. The entire aspect of the place changed. Flowers, vines, shrubs, were to be seen everywhere. One of the streets facing the factory was pronounced to be the most beautiful street in the world, considering the size of the lots and the houses.

These results were obtained, not by the expenditure of a large amount of money, but by a little attention and effort on the part of the men, women, and children of the neighborhood.

THE "HOUSE OF USEFULNESS"

A cottage near the factory was bought by the company and was fitted up as a "House of Usefulness." This cottage is the centre of the social and intellectual life of the community. It is in charge of a deaconess paid by the company. Her apartments in this cot-

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tage offer a practical example of furnishing a house attractively and at comparatively small expense. The use of the factory library located here, also of the public library books which the company receives, is given free to any one desiring the privilege. Here, also, the first effort in America was made to carry on Kindergarten work in direct connection with a factory. Classes are provided for all the children of the neighborhood, whose parents, whether factory employees or not, desire the little ones to take advantage of the opportunities offered. These classes are conducted by experienced teachers. The entire expense is borne by the company.

In connection with this work, a Penny Bank has been established, the object being to encourage the boys who sell the products of their garden-plots, and the children of the neighborhood in general, to save their pennies.

A Sunday school, now one of the most successful and best organized in the country, was also started here. It has about 700 members. The space available will accommodate only a small part of this number. For the rest, chairs are provided by the company in the large rooms of the factory. In the summer the classes meet out of doors, under the trees. The children are instructed not only in Bible history and in the topics usually taught in the Sunday school, but in those questions, especially, which are applicable to their everyday home life. Every effort is made to make the afternoons spent here attractive to the children. The stereopticon is considered a sure means of entertainment and instruction. Lessons are given on health, in nature, and in out-door life, in travel, in home-gardening, in flower-culture, and in numerous interesting and practical subjects. These talks are often attended by the parents and friends of the children. The influence of the work therefore is a broad one. The interest taken by the children and the obvious results for good from an undertaking of the kind more than repay any expense or effort which may be necessary to its maintenance.

The Boys' Club, the Girls' Club, the Lyceum Literary Club, the Young People's Society, and the Boys' Brigade — organizations composed of young people of the neighborhood and factory — have their headquarters in the "House of Usefulness." Organizations like the Woman's Guild, for the women of South Park, the Kindergarten, the Mothers' Union, and the Out-door Art Committee also come under its influence and direction. The continued improvement and growth of the whole South Park neighborhood, the consequent increase in property values, including that of land owned by the company, the interest taken by the inhabitants in these improvements, and the results of this interest in the lives and homes of the people, are due to the efforts of the company in establishing a "House of Usefulness."

The company gets its return from this extension of influence in many ways. It has a better class of employees to draw from in the immediate neighborhood; these employees, preferring to work here rather than elsewhere, — wages being the same or better, — add to the stability and permanence of the company's business; the value of land owned by the company is enhanced by attractive surroundings; and so on. From every point of view the plan here outlined is a paying business investment.

Now for the question of the desirability of undertaking plans for betterment: what is the use of considering the workers' well-being so long as good work may be obtained by paying good wages? Most employers have all they can do to consider themselves and the best ways of making their business pay; some have always considered the men in their employ as human beings rather than as machines; many have worked with their men in the ranks. To-day conditions have changed. The question of betterment is one that is met in some form by all employers.

If the results above indicated show that instead of bringing added expense, plans for betterment actually assist in making business pay, and indicate in some measure the manner in which such plans may be successfully carried out, the object here, apart from all questions of humanity and "philanthropy," will have been abundantly accomplished.

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ARE YOUNG MEN'S CHANCES LESS?

HAS CONSOLIDATION RESTRICTED OPPORTUNITIES?—WHAT MERCHANTS, BANKERS, LAWYERS, AND COLLEGE PRESIDENTS SAY—IMPORTANT AND PROFITABLE POSITIONS FOR WHICH COMPETENT MEN CANNOT BE FOUND

BY

HENRY HARRISON LEWIS

ARE young men's chances of success more hopeful or less to-day, than they were a generation ago? Are the concentration of business and the growth of great corporations a help or a menace to the youth who faces the world with no other heritage than his brains and his hands? Especially in the large cities is this a vital question. It is estimated that 150 young men from the country and the smaller cities come into New York to seek their fortunes every day in the year. They all hope to win success. But they are often told that the increase of population, the steadily advancing requirements for entering a business career or the professions, and the lessening opportunities for conducting independent enterprises, make the outlook continually darker.

The observation of men of experience is worth more than theoretical study to help toward a clear understanding of such a subject. I have preferred, therefore, directly to ask the opinions of a number of men who are themselves in positions that enable them to open careers for large numbers of young men, and who have been obliged to make a practical study of the present conditions of success. Their opinions are here presented for what they are worth.

Perhaps no better evidence could be obtained than the careers of some of these men themselves. Many of them are still young, young enough to have won success under the present industrial conditions.

One such is Mr. Charles M. Schwab of Pittsburg. Twenty years ago he received as wages a dollar a day at the Carnegie Works. Now he is the president of the company and receives a salary twice as large, perhaps, as the President of the United States, and he owns $15,000,000 worth of the company's stock. About 20,000 men are employed under him, and there are forty or more of his subordinates who receive salaries from $15,000 to $50,000 a year. Mr. Schwab began life with no money nor influence. He has risen by his business ability, and because of improvements in the manufacture of steel which he effected by a careful study of metallurgy, carried on in a laboratory which he fitted up in his own house and in which he worked outside of business hours.

There are, as everybody knows, many careers of a similar kind. Mr. Carnegie's own career is one. There is a man in New York who, twenty years ago, was shovelling gravel on a construction train on the Long Island Railroad. Now he is at the head of the consolidated street traction service of the city. He is Mr. Herbert H. Vreeland, who, yet a young man, receives a princely salary and does a great public service.

A list of men could be made of wearisome length who, by the time they have reached middle life, have won important administrative positions, or large fortunes, or both.

HIGH POSITIONS WAITING FOR MEN

Nearly all men who have themselves succeeded maintain that modern business organization has made more opportunities and better ones than before existed.

Mr. Charles R. Flint of New York says: —

"I have to-day places for several men to whom I would pay $10,000 a year. But they must be men of all-round business ability."

The president of one of the largest trusts in the country says: —

"I am anxious at the present time to fill five positions, three of which would yield $15,000 a year, and the other two $10,000 each. If the right

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men could be found, they could step into these places and these salaries to-morrow."

One of the largest, perhaps the largest, retail merchant in New York said that if he could find a young man who would now train himself, ultimately to succeed the managing partner of his house, he would pay him $50,000 a year.

Bankers, merchants, manufacturers, and railway presidents declare that they are looking for young men capable of directing great business operations.

"But the trusts and the vast industrial combinations," it is said, "which are securing control of almost every product are taking away these opportunities by lessening the number of lucrative positions. They are consolidating opportunities. One successful or lucky man now receives a big salary, whereas formerly half a dozen men had this salary divided among them."

But most of the managers of large enterprises deny this also. For instance, Mr. Flint says: —

COMBINATIONS MULTIPLY OPPORTUNITIES

"Highly developed organizations, resulting in an enormous volume of business, have increased the necessity for intelligence; and, since the supply of brains is not equal to the demand, the price of brains has risen. The turning over of individual enterprises to combinations has caused the retirement of old men to the advisory boards, and has made way for young men for the active posts. In our factories, our mines, our railways, in every field of organized industry, there are ten times as many men receiving $3000 a year or more as there were thirty years ago. The population of the country certainly has not increased tenfold in that period; and this increase in the number of good salaries is *prima facie* evidence that there has been an increase in the number of opportunities for men of ability.

"But it is said that they are dependent. Dependence of one individual upon another is, however, the condition of civilization. Complete independence is found only in the wigwam of the Indian. Was Captain Clark less the commander, or Chief Engineer Milligan less the engineer, because they were dependent upon each other in making the historic run and the fine fight of the *Oregon* in the Spanish-American War? Each gave to the other his opportunity.

"While economic evolution is centralizing production in large corporations, decentralization of ownership goes on simultaneously through the rapid distribution of shares.

"Under the old conditions of private ownership the control of many of our industrial enterprises would have been inherited by one individual or family. Now the control is subject to the rule that prevails in the administration of our state — the rule of the majority. It is seldom that the heirs of industrial giants have the capacity to succeed to the management of gigantic enterprises. The majority of stockholders — for, generally speaking, the numerical majority is also the majority in interest — elect as officers aspiring young men who, through years of application to a particular industry, have proved their ability to assume the responsibilities of leadership.

"It is not merely in the highest positions that this rule holds good. The rule in every great corporate business is to divide responsibilities among men fitted by their training to direct special departments. The head of a single department in a great modern concern has more authority and more responsibility than the owner of a private business had twenty-five years ago. I know that great industrial concerns are frequently embarrassed because they cannot find men who can command big salaries, and that the directors of our financial institutions are put to it to find trustworthy men capable of handling great undertakings. This state of affairs does not indicate that the young man of to-day has no chance, does it?"

A similar opinion is held by Mr. James B. Dill, a prominent corporation lawyer in New York: —

"The corporate tendency of to-day has created an active demand for, and put a premium upon, college-trained minds, both in business and in professional pursuits. The profession of the law, to-day, as every other profession, calls not only for men of strong individuality, but for men capable of intelligent, strong team-work. The man who is most in demand and receives the greatest reward, is the man of strong individuality who is capable of the most accurate, energetic, and intelligent combination-work. Individualism is not dead. On the contrary, individualism is still more strongly called for in the development of combinations."

General Francis V. Greene, who has found time, before reaching fifty, to win success as a soldier, a writer, an engineer, and a business man, adds his testimony: —

"There are three sorts of men, and for two of these sorts the tendency to industrial consolidation is a distinct advantage, while for the third there is no salvation in any economic system that has yet

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been devised. These three classes are the thoroughly competent who go to the top and command annual salaries that would once have been fortunes; the half competent who find profitable employment in subordinate positions and are saved from going into business for themselves and failing, as they would have fallen under the old system; and the incompetent who sit on the park benches as they would have done before.

"In the four years ending June 30th, 1900, the exports of the United States were $4,800,000,000. In this same period the imports were $2,900,000,000, leaving a balance in our favor of almost $2,000,000,000. This country is so big, and its trade is becoming so vast that big concerns are needed to handle it. No collection of small manufacturers, without a common purpose except to fight one another, could hope to handle such a business. It requires consolidation, organization, and heads capable of handling armies of men. This is the opportunity of the young man with brains. So far as I know anything about large concerns, they all are looking for good men to take high executive positions. The man who has the advantage of an education in a technical school, and possesses business ability, will be rushed right along to the top. The great combinations can well afford to pay large salaries to men who can manage their expensive machinery and who are trained to high special labor. Every increase in the extent of commercial organization and in the trade of the country widens the range of opportunities. There never has been a time in the history of the world when there have been so many chances for young men as now."

CHANCES IN BANKS AND RAILROADS

In banking, consolidation has affected the chances of young men less directly. But Mr. William H. Kimball, president of the Seventh National Bank of New York, says:—

"The large banking concerns are the concerns that make the most money and present the best opportunities for young men. The chances for young men in banking to-day are as good as ever, and the facilities for reaching the top are better. The same capacity, integrity, and ambition are required, and these qualities, with persistence, are bound to win success sooner or later. The outcry that the trusts are taking away the opportunities of young men affords a good excuse for those who do not wish to work."

Another banker, Mr. W. A. Nash, of the New York Corn Exchange Bank, says:—

"Our country is filling up rapidly, but new avenues of occupation are continually opened and opportunities for advancement are far more frequent to-day than when I was a boy. Bankers are on the alert for trustworthy and capable young men. Influence and personal interest may be important in securing a position, but afterwards every man must stand on his own merits."

CONDITIONS IN THE PROFESSIONS

Now to turn to the professions. Dr. George F. Shrady, of New York, gives an interesting review of the outlook for young physicians:—

"The young man entering upon the practice of medicine to-day has just as good an opportunity for success as the man of thirty years ago had, perhaps better," he says.

"There has been an equalization of advantages. A young man of to-day has a better foundation for his medical education than he used to have, thanks to the high schools, the technical schools, and the hospitals. In the early days he went from the plough to read in the doctor's office, thence to an ill-equipped medical college, and thence to practice. He had to learn his profession by practice and hard knocks. A young practitioner's earnings were, I think, comparatively more thirty years ago than they are to-day; living expenses were not so high, and neither were the office and professional expenses so large. The great development of the country and of the advance in the science of medicine have made new fields for medical men. The specialists receive fewer but larger fees.

"To-day the standard required is much higher than it has ever before been, and the rewards of the successful are proportionately greater. I may compare the physician of to-day with the well-trained and groomed thoroughbred. The track is 'faster' now than it ever was, the thoroughbreds are trained to a finer point, and those who start in the race are more numerous. It is a hard race, and the track is crowded with particularly good runners. The best naturally win. But there is the law of compensation to be considered in medicine as in other callings. If there are more physicians, there are also more patients, and they are richer and better able to pay big fees. There are few fortunes to be made in medicine, to be sure, but there is always a good living for competent men. As in other things, the unequipped go to the bottom. Medicine used to be a limited monarchy with a few uncrowned kings at the head. Now it is a great republic in which every good man is the equal of his fellow. There is only one thing that will bring the young man of to-day success in medicine, and that is a love for his profession and the hardest kind of hard work. The man who

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splits his own wood is warmed twice. There is a great field for specialists in the big cities that did not exist thirty years ago. But the country doctor, too, is a well-educated man and vastly superior to his predecessor. He is self-reliant, and a good general practitioner, as a rule. One of the greatest factors in the success of the young doctor is his affability of manner. The day of the frank and brutal practitioner is past. The opportunity for success in the medical profession is greater than it ever was, for the brilliant man; and it is as great for the mediocre man."

TWO COLLEGE PRESIDENTS' OPINIONS

President Schurman, of Cornell University, has a hopeful view: —

"Judging from our experience at Cornell University, there never has been a time when there were so many demands for able and well-trained young men as at present," says President Schurman. "Perhaps the majority of these applications come from concerns supported by large combinations of capital. As the success of this sort of business depends upon the ability with which its affairs are managed, young men of character and brains are indispensable, and wonderfully high salaries await those who can earn them. I think that the opportunities for young men under the present system of large combinations of capital are greater than ever before in the history of the world.

"It is a mistake, however, to suppose that small concerns and competitive undertakings have been eliminated by those great combinations. There are now, and always will be, small factories, small stores, and other similar enterprises. Service in some of these may give a young man more varied responsibility and consequently more varied training. But so far as success is concerned, if one measures success by the financial compensation received, I think young men will have better opportunities in the large institutions than in the small."

The president of a university who prefers that his name should not be made known, lest he should be thought to criticise his associates, said, in answer to my inquiry: —

"I'll tell you frankly, I think about no other subject so much, for two reasons: I can't find the men I want as teachers, and I cannot give the definite advice that I should like to be able to give to many a young man who talks with me about his career.

"Now then, this university wants young men trained to enter its faculty after they have had experience, who can teach, who are men of force, first-class, forthright men, — men who *could* do anything, but who prefer this noble labor to any other. But most of the young men who choose academic careers are like the older ones — men of high ideals, men of studious habits, men who love knowledge and are eager in its quest, men with whom it is a joy to live if sometimes a trial to work; but they lack force. The chance is here. There are more opportunities than there are strong men.

"I have concluded, and the conclusion saddens me, that most youth of force prefer commercial careers. The stronger boys go into business or into the active professions. But lawyers and men of affairs tell me that they, too, are looking for the same sort of men that I wish to see in training for teaching. I have concluded, therefore, that there are many more chances for strong men than there are strong men for these chances.

"But all this does not touch the man of mediocre ability and energy — the seventy-five or eighty or ninety or ninety-five out of every hundred. But these commonplace men, if they are industrious and have good habits, do manage to get along well — just as well, I think, as they ever did. I can't believe that a healthful and industrious young fellow has any greater difficulty than his father had.

"But he differs from his father in this — and I think that this is probably the cause of the constant complaints we hear: his father was not so ambitious. More young men nowadays hope for a brilliant success, perhaps a spectacular success, than dared hope for it a generation ago.

"But, after all, there are more successful men in every calling to-day than ever before — whether a larger proportion, I do not know. I tell the youth that seek my advice one thing that I know is sound doctrine: 'Don't think too much about yourself and about how fast you think you ought to rise. Work! A morbid man wouldn't know a Great Opportunity if he met it in the street every morning."

THE CHANCE FOR DOING GOOD

Most of these opinions turn, not unnaturally, perhaps, about the question of mere material success — money-making and the measure of success given by money. The higher view — the view of success as an all-round normal development of character and mind — implies of course a moderate degree of financial achievement and of personal independence. These acquired, the chance of a good influence in the world, of a widespread effect of sound character and good deeds, is greater than ever before. There can hardly be doubt of this conclusion.

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MR. ROOT AS SECRETARY OF WAR

A "FIGHTING LAWYER" WHO TAKES HIS DUTIES SERIOUSLY — A REMOVER OF SCANDALS IN THE DEPARTMENT — THE REORGANIZATION OF THE ARMY

WHEN Mr. Olney was made Secretary of State, a fellow-member of the Cabinet said: "The two appointments hitherto made to that office by President Cleveland seemed ideal in their way; in one case he chose a trained publicist and statesman, in the other he took a distinguished judge from the bench. The political propriety of both appointments was beyond question. Nevertheless, it cannot be said that either appointee achieved a great success. This time he has some especially hard work for a Secretary of State to do, and he is going to try a fighting lawyer."

It may have been in such a mood that President McKinley, when obliged to choose a new Secretary of War in mid-term, turned his eyes toward Mr. Elihu Root. In his appointment of Mr. Alger he had followed the almost unbroken precedent of a quarter century, in treating the office as if it were chiefly ornamental, and easily filled by any man who had amassed a fortune and knew something of politics. A rule that works well enough in fair weather is often a poor dependence in a storm, and the Cuban War and its Philippine sequel presented problems too intricate for Mr. Alger's ability. It is to the President's credit that, on the discovery of his error, he acknowledged it by making a change so complete as to leave no doubt of the sincerity of his conversion.

A greater contrast in appearance, methods, and temperament than that between the present Secretary of War and his immediate predecessor it would be hard to conceive. Mr. Alger had the merchant, the personal manager, the private man of business, plainly stamped on him. His dignity of manner was an artificial barrier which he had raised between himself and a world full of competitors in trade, of inferiors in authority, of persons from whom he was to buy and to whom he was to sell on the terms most advantageous to himself. If he unbent, it was to be affable, or "democratic." When his patience was too sorely tried, he lost control of voice and gesture, and an explosion followed.

Mr. Root, while less aggressive than Mr. Olney, is quite a "fighting lawyer." It would not be fair to say that he lacks dignity of manner, but he has a natural reserve, more subtle than what is commonly known as dignity. There is nothing stiff about his greeting, and yet it does not put the caller wholly at ease. He has no gift for small talk. He does not know what it is to "pass the time of day," to make conversation for the sake of being pleasant, — at least in office hours. It is enough to do this when social intercourse compels it. When any one calls upon him to transact business, business must be transacted; and when this is ended, the interview is expected to end.

MR. ROOT'S LEGAL CAREER

In his law practice, which has been full of trying situations, his unvarying coolness has stood him in good stead. In public life, criticism, even of the most galling sort, fails to ruffle his spirits. He treats it, indeed, as unworthy of any response unless backed by an authority which he is officially bound to respect. Thus his nomination for a seat on the Common Pleas bench of New York in 1879 was the signal for a bitter assault by his political opponents, based on the fact that he had been one of the legal defenders of Tweed in the notorious Tammany Ring prosecutions, and that he had let his zeal for his client carry him so far as to call forth a rebuke from the court. On his acceptance of a Cabinet portfolio the same accusation was revived, coupled with the charge that he was regularly retained as counsel for the Sugar Trust. It would have been a simple thing for him to respond that in both these instances, and in others like

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them which were matters of public record, he had appeared only in a professional capacity, and had done, as was his duty, all he could to secure for his clients their full rights under the law; and that, in such cases as the aqueduct litigation and the Yale Lock infringement suit, he had saved his fellow taxpayers millions of dollars. But to every attempt of the newspapers to draw him out he answered not a word. On the other hand, when the Senate voted to look into the charge that as Secretary of War he had shown favoritism to certain miners at Cape Nome by granting them exclusive permits to excavate the gold-bearing bed of the sea, his answer was forthcoming as soon as the resolution of inquiry reached his table. It showed that, since the statutes for the protection of commerce forbade excavations in navigable waters except by his authority, he had issued permits to all who had applied for them, covering places where, according to the Chief of Engineers of the army, the work of the miners could not do any harm. The prompt refutation disarmed his assailants, and nothing more was heard of the matter.

ELEVATION BY APPOINTMENTS

Mr. Root lacks what the politicians call "warmth" and "approachableness," and his advancement in public life has been not by popular election, but by appointment. Twice he has been appointed to offices of large responsibility: President Arthur made him United States District Attorney for New York, and President McKinley, before naming him for a place in the Cabinet, had him in mind for Ambassador to Great Britain. President Harrison would have been glad to promote him. He could have had his choice of honors in the gift of Governor Roosevelt, who has leaned upon his judgment for years. Appointive offices have been his to command. But his single nomination for a judgeship led to defeat at the polls. Every time, for the last fifteen years, that the State of New York has been casting about for a governor or the city for a mayor, Mr. Root's name has been high on the list of Republicans "prominently mentioned," but he was never nominated.

No man in public life has changed more than Secretary Root between youth and middle life. Reared in a small college town in Central New York, earning as a teacher the money to complete his education in the law, he entered his profession in the great city with no factitious equipment. He had no influential connections to help him; and, of course, no fortune to rest upon till a clientage should find him out. He was in sound health, of wiry build, and full of courage. No task was formidable enough to discourage him; no adversary faced him at the bar with whom he feared to wrestle. He became famous for his ready eloquence and skill at repartee in the court-room. He carried the same spirit into his political speech-making, and was continuously in demand in the campaigns. But as his practice changed, he long neglected public speaking. But his speech at Canton, Ohio, just before the election, was the best speech made on either side during the campaign.

Not less in his political ideals has Mr. Root undergone a change. He came to New York in the days when Chester A. Arthur, as the Prince Hal of the Republican dynasty, held petty court at the Custom House end of the town, but was frowned upon by the solid citizens who did not dabble in politics. The young lawyer was one of a small group of ambitious men whose mettle Mr. Arthur was quick to discover, and whom he attached to himself, possibly by letting them get a glimpse of the true heart underneath his roysterer's mantle. When, suddenly summoned to the responsibilities of the Presidency, he shook off the associations of his earlier career, and held faster than ever to the handful of companions whom he believed worthy to share his elevation, Mr. Root was one of these. From the atmosphere of thick-and-thin partisanship in which he had passed his youth, he emerged by degrees as a reformer — a party man still, but one who realizes that parties should serve the state, not rule it. Thus the Mr. Root of to-day may be a less frequent campaigner than the Mr. Root of twenty years ago, but he is a riper man.

As Secretary of War, he stands for the idea of unification, as opposed to the incessant clash of diverse bureau policies. All his work is made tributary to a definite line of action, instead of being merely a succession of temporary expedients. Early and late at his desk, barring his door against intrusion except at certain hours set apart for visits, he

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gives the impression of being the busiest member of the Cabinet. Most of his work has been broadly laid for greater results in the future. He has a well-defined plan for the reorganization of the army; but such an undertaking requires the coöperation of Congress, and Congress is a slow body while under the influence, as it is at present, of a group of military officers whose importance would be reduced by the proposed changes. The total fruit of his efforts at last winter's session was an increase of one hundred in the number of cadets at West Point, and legislation touching a dozen matters of minor consequence but ignoring those which he had most at heart. But that Congress was willing to do anything at all was a surprise to most observers, and may fairly be accepted as an earnest of better things to come.

THE REORGANIZATION OF THE ARMY

One feature of Mr. Root's reorganization plan which has attracted wide attention is the establishment of an army war college corresponding to the naval war college. Its purpose will be to prevent the recurrence of a situation which threatened our land forces with disaster in 1898 through lack of preparation for war. Tributary to this will be a system of staff details, such that every officer in the line who shows adaptability for staff duty may receive four years of actual training in the mobilization of an army and its subsistence in the field, and then return to his place in the line. Still a third feature of his plan is a modification of the seniority rule, so as to let selection play a part in promotion. He would have the first three officers of each grade below field rank made eligible, so that either one of the three might be selected, and the other two put, as it were, upon the waiting list till the officer chosen should die or retire or be further promoted. It is true that, if the fortunate man happened to be the junior member of the trio, his competitors might never reach the higher rank; but the arrangement would offer a compensating advantage in stimulating young officers to distinguish themselves, instead of dropping into a rut and trusting for their advancement to the flight of years rather than to their own exertions.

Mr. Root's activities in Washington have not been confined to those assigned by law and custom to his office. It is an open secret that he assumed, for a part of last summer, the chief burdens of the Department of State in addition to his own. It was his pen which, during Secretary Hay's illness, framed some of the most important diplomatic notes touching the crisis in China. It was characteristic of the man, that he was willing to do this double duty while he was suffering acutely from a disorder which no one was permitted to suspect till the strain was past and he could find time to call in a surgeon.

A STRONG HEAD OF A DEPARTMENT

No Secretary of War has kept his Department more free from scandals, petty as well as big. The first problem he had to face was, how to check the demoralization which had begun to spread through the military establishment, growing out of the strained relations between the Adjutant-General and the Major-General Commanding the Army. Mr. Alger had not proved disciplinarian enough to compose the differences between the two officers. Possibly he had become too frankly a partisan of one side, after his patience had been exhausted by the other. Mr. Root's first assertion of authority made it evident to both parties that they had to deal with a man who would go to the very bottom of their quarrel if they forced it upon his unwilling notice, and who, on ascertaining its merits, would mete out justice in his own fashion. The effect of the discovery was magical. The bickerings and backbitings which for two years had furnished material for the sensational press, suddenly ceased. The surface of affairs at the War Department became as smooth as a summer sea, and so it remains to this day.

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HIS EXCELLENCY WU TING-FANG

HIS UNIQUE POSITION AND HIS WORK IN PRESERVING GOOD FEELING—HIS OPINION OF AMERICAN TRADE AND MISSIONARIES—THE FUTURE OF CHINA

MR. WU, the Chinese Minister, is the most interesting figure in the diplomatic corps at Washington. The events of the past six months have made him the most conspicuous foreigner in the United States; and in the midst of overwhelming difficulties he has shown the most delicate tact and courtesy, and retained the good will of all Americans.

The career of this remarkable man is crowded with incidents that show high qualities. He was born near Canton, and in that city acquired his early education. Going then to Hong Kong, where his father was a merchant, he added English to his other studies. In the important business transactions between Chinese and English merchants, he observed that his countrymen were at a disadvantage because their lawyers did not understand the English language and English law. His patriotism and his ambition were stirred. He determined to go to England and to study English law. The anti-foreign prejudice was then so strong that his friends almost violently opposed his plan. He persisted, and went to England in 1874, and in due course by hard work became a barrister, the first man of his race to attain to that distinction.

On his way home, in 1877, Mr. Wu visited the United States for the first time. When he returned to Hong Kong, he established himself in a successful practice, his knowledge of English law and his command of the English language making his services immensely valuable to his people. Until 1882 he continued to practise law, in the meantime declining an appointment as Consul-General at San Francisco.

The skill and aptitude of Mr. Wu in diplomatic negotiations with Japan won the respect of the statesmen with whom he had been associated in two important missions, and of his government, and he was appointed to his present post as Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary to the United States, Spain, Mexico, and Peru in May, 1897.

He knew something of the customs of the American people, and when he descended the gang-plank of the steamer which brought him here he readily submitted to the interviewer. He proved himself more than a match for the wiliest reporter.

No sooner was he fairly established at the capital than Washington awoke to the fact that the Chinese Minister was a new kind of Oriental diplomat. He immediately began a somewhat ostentatious campaign of self-introduction. His advances were received with enthusiasm. His suavity and politeness were charming. Here was a Chinese Minister who joked in our own idiom and who entertained superbly. He even introduced Madame Wu to society; and she, on her part, immediately undertook the study of English, in which she has since acquired some proficiency. The teas given at the legation are more popular than those of any other diplomat.

Minister Wu is a busy man, but he is more easily seen than any department or bureau chief in Washington, and he makes generous sacrifices of time to all sorts of people. It is a part of his plan to be amiable. He understands the value of popularity in America, and in the trying days of last summer he had his reward. Had he been previously unapproachable, he would inevitably have fallen under a cloud of suspicion, if not of hostility. As it was, he had hosts of friends who believed in him; and by maintaining his wonted frankness and friendliness, he rendered his country inestimable service.

And his good nature is not assumed. It is a part of the man. He likes to oblige people. Moreover he has a keen sense of humor. He sees the bright side of things. But he can be serious at the proper time; and his dignity and

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poise were admirably displayed when the nation to which he was accredited seemed likely at any moment to hand him his passports.

When the first reports of Boxer uprisings came there was a rush of newspaper correspondents to the Chinese legation. Minister Wu welcomed them. He knew them all. He talked freely, patiently, skilfully, giving such information as he could, and never failing to plead for sober consideration from the American people.

Then, when it became evident that the Chinese government itself was a party to the mischief, he exerted himself to prevent hostile pre-judgment. His representations to the State Department were made with great skill. He protested against the sending of troops; but when the troops were sent, he accepted the situation gracefully. When the entire country was excited about the legations, he refused to believe that the foreigners in Pekin had been massacred, and declared his belief of their ultimate safety. Then, when no one else could secure news from Pekin, he placed himself at the service of the State Department for the transmission, privately, of a message to Mr. Conger. The message was sent and an answer was received. That was a red-letter day for Mr. Wu. When, later, he himself was accused of duplicity, he felt keenly the false accusation. But he kept cool and made only pacific responses. "These are days of sensational journalism," he said; "I hope the American people will be slow to form their opinions from ill-considered newspaper reports." At no time did he demean himself with greater dignity than under this torrent of hostile doubt. In the subsequent negotiations he has proved his large understanding of international difficulties.

"And what have you to say of the American part in the international performance?" I asked him.

"I am entirely satisfied," was his reply; "I think the Administration has done all that it could be expected to do; especially," he added, with a smile, "in a democratic country, on the eve of an election."

"America," he continued, "is now a power in Asia. It will not be necessary to disturb the conditions that have existed, and when the United States is firmly established in the Philippines, it will be even more desirable for the protection of American interests to maintain the integrity of China. America has much that China needs. We need American merchandise. We need railroads." He is proud of the fact that he was the promoter of the first railroad in China.

"And the missionaries?"

"I would not say a word against the missionaries," he replied. "They have gone, you know, into the interior, far from treaty ports, where the people are unaccustomed to foreigners, and some of them have attacked the cherished traditions and beliefs of the people without sufficient regard for their feelings, perhaps. How would you like that, now?" he asked, for it is a favorite thrust of Minister Wu to say, "Put yourself in his place."

"But the medical missionaries," he went on, "have done much good. They have gone among ignorant people and cured their ills; some of them have translated useful books into the Chinese language. I give them the highest credit; and if I might say a word to those who send out missionaries, I would say, 'Send medical missionaries. They will help us to build up China.'"

Minister Wu believes in Western civilization. He contributes articles to the American magazines; he is the first Chinese Minister to address an American audience, and the University of Pennsylvania has made him a Doctor of Laws; he rides a bicycle about the streets of Washington, and he has an automobile for Madame Wu.

He is an indefatigable worker. Although he speaks and writes English fluently, he continues his study of the language, and he knows French. He lately concluded the negotiation of a treaty of amity with Mexico. Last year he visited Spain and presented to the Spanish court his credentials as Minister to that country. As yet he has been unable to leave Washington in order to go on a like mission to Peru, the other country to which he is accredited.

Minister Wu is now about fifty years old; in his small mustache there is a tinge of gray. But the impression he gives is of a man of great force and vigor; and his keen brown eyes are alive with intelligence. He was born of a family in good circumstances, but his comfortable fortune is mainly of his own making.

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THE NAVY IN THE PHILIPPINES

ITS SERVICE SINCE ADMIRAL DEWEY'S VICTORY — THE PATROL OF THE ARCHIPELAGO — THE INSURRECTION BROKEN

BY

REAR-ADMIRAL J. C. WATSON

I CONSIDER that there is no longer any insurrectionary government opposing us in the Philippine Islands. The backbone of the uprising is broken. This does not mean that all resistance will cease at once or in a few months. In my belief there will be hostilities for perhaps another year — not open engagements, but guerilla fighting until the extermination of brigandage.

Our government has a sufficient naval and military force in the Philippines for a working possession of the islands. There are about 65,000 troops and somewhat more than fifty vessels manned by about 7500 men, making a total force of 72,500.

For the complete subjugation of the islands and the establishment of local government, it will be necessary to retain this force for fully a year. But I do not believe that it will be actively engaged all the time. Much of it will be assigned for garrison duty, especially for the protection of the friendly natives who would otherwise be the victims of the villany of the outlaws. These friendly natives must have protection, and the sooner the insurgents realize that they are under the protection of our government, the sooner will they adapt themselves to the new order.

There must be a strong display of armed force. The Filipinos must be intimidated. They must be treated with just severity, but not with cruelty. Our extreme leniency has amazed them and cost us many valuable lives. But severe lessons have been taught the Filipinos, and more must follow.

I anticipate beneficent results from the work of the new Philippine Commission headed by Judge Taft, not only because of the high character of the Commission, which merits and has the confidence of the American people, but also because it is backed up by so efficient a military and naval force.

The progress of the settlement of all troubles will depend largely upon the success of the Commission in its dealing with the friars and in its conduct in reference to the church property. There is a popular desire among the natives that this vast church property, so long the bone of contention, should revert to the people. If the title to much of it can be shown to have been obtained by fraud or to be in any way invalid, a great deal of the present bitterness will be removed.

There is no longer any Filipino government. There seems to be no head to it, and demoralization has followed the scattering of the insurgent forces. It was faith in the integrity of Aguinaldo and what he stood for that kept alive the spirit of revolt. There is, however, now a strong impression that he is either dead or incapacitated; and I myself am strongly inclined to this opinion in spite of the recent alleged proclamations from him. My own opinion of the Filipino is that he is at present capable only of local self-government — to a very limited extent.

The navy's part at Manila and elsewhere in the Philippine Archipelago continues to be important; and I believe that it will be necessary to keep a large fleet on the station, not only for the moral effect, but because of the long coast-line that must be patrolled.

The most notable naval achievement during my command was the surrender of Zamboanga to Commander Very of the *Castine*. It resulted in the pacification not only of that place, but of much of the adjacent territory. I made a tour of inspection during my stay in the Philippines, which included a cruise to the Sulu Islands. Because of this trip I am able to correct a wrong impression that has been made in the United States by newspaper publications, — I mean the impression that

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the Americans were inciting the Moros or Mussulmans to murder the Christian natives. The truth of the matter is, Commander Very made constant and successful efforts to keep these two classes of natives from killing each other, and the Moros showed much humanity toward the native Christians.

The chief work of the navy continues as mapped out by Admiral Dewey and as followed by Captain A. S. Barker, who temporarily succeeded him as commander-in-chief in the interval between Admiral Dewey's departure from Manila and my arrival there on June 20, 1899. It consists of maintaining a patrol of the entire coast, a distance of about six thousand miles, and preventing the landing of arms and war supplies by the insurgents. Almost as sharp a watch is kept by the ships at Manila to-day as was kept immediately after the battle of Manila Bay. Strange as it may seem, the hot-bed of insurrection is yet in Manila and in the Cavité province. The most serious obstacle that lies in the path of complete settlement is the question of the treatment of the Mohammedan population of the Sulu group.

REAR-ADMIRAL WATSON

REAR-ADMIRAL JOHN CRITTENDEN WATSON, U.S.N., is a sailor of the old school. His career goes back to the days of the wooden frigates, and he has witnessed practically the whole evolution of modern naval warfare. He was born in Kentucky, August 24, 1842, and was appointed to the Naval Academy in 1856. His first service was as midshipman on the *Susquehanna*. He was flag lieutenant on the flagship *Hartford* of the West Gulf Squadron from 1862 to 1864, and he saw hard service. In 1863 he was appointed flag lieutenant to Admiral Farragut, and participated in the battle of Mobile Bay. In 1866 he was commissioned a lieutenant commander. A year later he was once more assigned to duty under Admiral Farragut, this time on the *Franklin*.

Admiral Watson's return journey from the Philippines provoked as cordial greetings as Admiral Dewey received. The *Baltimore*, his flagship, left Manila April 19.

Upon reaching the Mediterranean, the demonstrations in honor of the American navy began, and were continued at every port that the *Baltimore* touched. It was the good fortune of Admiral Watson to find the entire Mediterranean fleet of the British navy in command of Vice-Admiral Sir John Fisher, with Rear-Admiral Lord Charles Beresford second in command — a notable assemblage of war-vessels. More than usual courtesies were extended to the American ship by the British authorities both afloat and ashore. It was necessary for the *Baltimore* to go into quarantine at Malta, but on the Fourth of July, despite the *Baltimore's* isolation the entire English fleet dressed ship in honor of the day. Sir John Fisher arranged a dinner for Admiral Watson, but he was unable to accept on account of illness. To the representatives of the American admiral Sir John recalled the fact that it had been his privilege to serve as midshipman in that first attack on the Taku forts in the fifties, when Anglo-Saxon stood by Anglo-Saxon in the hour of need. It was on this memorable occasion that Commodore Tatnall of the American navy rushed to the relief of the hard-pressed English squadron with the now famous cry of "Blood is thicker than water."

At Gibraltar a cordial welcome awaited the *Baltimore*, extended by Sir George White, the hero of Ladysmith. At Gibraltar Admiral Watson came near stampeding the staff of Spanish servants at the American Consulate. The servants had been apprised of his coming, and they practically rebelled and threatened flight in the event of the arrival of the terrible fighter who had been designated to lead the squadron against the coast of Spain! On September 8, the *Baltimore* reached New York, and Admiral Watson hauled down his flag and retired from active sea-service. Shortly after his arrival he was apprised of his appointment as president of the Naval Examining Board, the body which passes on the promotion of officers.

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BAS-RELIEF OF ROBERT LOUIS STEVENSON. (Saint-Gaudens.)



A TRIUMPH OF AMERICAN SCULPTORS

THE REMARKABLE ADVANCE OF AMERICAN SCULPTURE—MR. SAINT-GAUDENS OUR GREATEST REPRESENTATIVE—THE HONORS AT THE PARIS EXPOSITION SHARED BY HIM, RODIN, AND MEUNIER—OTHER NOTABLE AMERICAN WORK

BY

KATHARINE DE FOREST

THE works of American artists occupied the central and most conspicuous place in the great glass rotunda devoted to sculpture in the Palais des Beaux Arts at the Exposition. Next to France itself, America carried off the most medals and awards.

That this last should have been the case is a striking exemplification of the artistic development of our country within the last decade. Not only was American sculpture very sparingly represented in 1889, but only one man then, Mr. Paul Bartlett, showed work of incontestably great merit. This year our exhibit in point of size was still to that of France only as is a pygmy to a giant. It is well for us to realize that it was composed of the works of only thirty-one men, while the French exhibitors numbered over three hundred; moreover, while the level of talent among Americans was indisputably high, the average standard in conception and execution among the French was no less so. But enough originality and individuality characterized the ensemble of the American work to make it stand out among that of all the other countries, and it was seen that we had certain sculptors of great distinction. The chief interest of any international exhibition lies in its opportunity for comparison. And the Palais des



A PORTRAIT.
By John Flanagan.

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SWIFT RUNNERS.

By John Flanagan — who was awarded a Silver Medal at the Exposition for this Piece.

Beaux Arts brought together and placed side by side three men who, each in a very different fashion, realize an ideal in sculpture, — the Frenchman Rodin, the Belgian Constantin Meunier, and the American Saint-Gaudens. It was a great triumph for America that for many of the most intelligent critics Mr. Saint-Gaudens was the most complete of these three.



By John Flanagan.

To understand this point of view we must look at the works of these great men not as individual achievements in sculpture, but comparatively in their relation to the ideal in their art. M. Rodin has never shown himself to be an all-round sculptor, and the separate Rodin exhibition proves this still more conclusively. That is to say, Rodin is not a sculptor uniting form with thought like Michael Angelo. He makes living things, he translates nature into art. When he tries to synthesize his mental impressions, to unite a great number of these into one work, he is not entirely successful, as in his much-discussed statue of Balzac.

M. Constantin Meunier, on the other hand, does not give an impression of life. He does not seem to have a strong feeling for form. His principal work at the exhibition, "La Moisson, La Terre," "The Harvest, The Soil," a large high-relief, representing a group of harvesters in a field of ripened grain, was a masterpiece because of the

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loftiness of his idea, through his great conception of manual labor as the link uniting man to the soil, interpreted in a work of art of extreme poetic beauty. But it did not give the feeling of life. His figures were symbols, and not living men and women.

In Mr. Saint-Gaudens we found the same *recherche de la vie*, the constant seeking after life, that we saw in M. Rodin, and the lofty thought of M. Constantin Meunier. He added also a third element which was of the deepest interest to foreign critics, as it is to Americans, and that is that all his work bore such a strong impress of the spirit of his country. If we examine his exhibits at the Grand Palais, we shall see that with a feeling for form like that of the Greeks, and the love of movement which is so characteristic of modern sculpture, they embody the most marked of all our American traits — vigor, energy, will-power, resolution, patriotism, and the sentiment of the independence of man.

The great standard of a work of art is simplicity. The great man in any art is he who



HORSES.
By Frederick Mac Monnies.

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THE WRESTLERS.

By J. H. Rondebusch — awarded a Bronze Medal at the Exposition

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THE SHAW MONUMENT IN BOSTON.
Saint-Gaudens.

can create something that is simple, and yet with this simple thing give a fine and elevated emotion. The literary artist achieves this through the tact with which he chooses his words and facts and arranges them in a certain order. And in Saint-Gaudens's statue to General Sherman (see frontispiece), which was his principal exhibit at the Exposition, the power which moves us may be explained in the same way. The life in it first arouses us, steed and rider give an impression of advancing in a fine onward movement, which we feel in every detail; in the arch of the horse's neck, for instance, the flap of the military cape blown back by the wind. The group is a joy because of its splendid modelling, but through an infinity of means the sculptor has given it more than that. He has made every line in the General's stern, spare figure and grave, beautiful face full of psychological suggestion. You read in its simplicity, so devoid of anything melodramatic, of all the ordinary panache of military glory, singleness of purpose, resolution, heroism, patriotism, all the finest qualities belonging to man, and the heart thrills responsively as it recognizes them. The winged Victory is Greek art transformed by an American temperament and the special impress of his country. The symbol takes the shape of the



A HEAD.
By John Flanagan.



HORTENSE LENORE MITCHELL.
By John Flanagan.

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THE PURITAN.

By Saint-Gaudens — awarded a Grand Prix.

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MICHAEL ANGELO. By Paul Bartlett.
The bronze Original of this is in the Reading-room of the Congressional Library, Washington.

eternally alluring female form, but the type is American. The figure has the particular distinction, fearlessness, and purity of the American girl, and even a little of her stiffness.

Mr. Saint-Gaudens has profited by the sculpture of other countries, and at the same time remained peculiarly of his own. You see this in all his work. In the "Shaw Monument" there is the same astonishing life and movement that there is in the statue to Sherman. You fairly hear the beat of the soldiers' feet as they march past, and from it breathes the same lofty sentiment of patriotism. "The Puritan," again, is a symbol, a figure capable of reviving a whole epoch of our national history. The continuity of everything which exists, to my mind, can be preserved more fully by sculpture than in any other way. Suppose for a moment that every historical record in America, and everything in writing bearing upon its history, should be lost during the course of the ages, the exact spirit of two periods at least could be seen through these statues of Mr. Saint-Gaudens.

His defects, in the eyes of the best æsthetic authorities abroad, arise from his very qualities. He is apt to give a little too much importance to details, and he sometimes loses in largeness of treatment by this. Detail that is carried too far becomes petty. In the single impression given by a great and noble statue like the General Sherman, your attention is distracted rather than engaged by such care of details as is shown in the lines in the horse's neck. But the Exposition would have placed Mr. Saint-Gaudens, if he had not held that position before, among the greatest of living sculptors. What is the constant wonder of his contemporaries is the extraordinary capacity for freshness of impression that he has been able to keep. The secret of it, I think, is in the fact that he has always kept his mind and soul apart from everything that was common and vulgar, and that therefore he has vibrated only to all that was best and finest in our national life.

One thing which the international exhibition brought out very clearly was the fact that no country was preëminent in sculpture which did not possess a great sculptor. Italy has no great sculptor, and the exhibit of this country, which, from the fourteenth to the seventeenth century, led the world in this branch



DANIEL GARRISON BRINTON.
By John Flanagan.

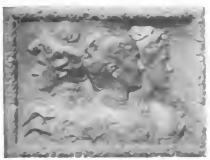
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PAN (awarded a Gold Medal).
By George Gray Barnard. In Central Park, New York.

of art, was almost entirely without interest. Neither had Germany an exhibit of importance, nor Spain nor England. Such sculptors as Chapu, Frémiet, and Rodin in France, Constantin Meunier in Belgium, and Saint-Gaudens in America have raised the whole standard of sculpture in their respective countries.

Mr. Mac Monnies, the other American sculptor, who with Mr. Saint-Gaudens received the Grand Prix at the Exhibition, is an artist of extraordinary virility, versatility, and erudition. He does not stand apart like Mr. Saint-Gaudens. His great bas-reliefs, "The Army and the Navy; the Heroes of the War of 1861–1865," from the triumphal arch of Brooklyn, are magnificent groups, full of the intensity of war, of the martial spirit expressed with force in comprehensive detail, but they are not as great as the "Chant du Départ," by Rude, on the French Arc de Triomphe, by which they have evidently been inspired. Mr. Mac Monnies does not stand among his contemporaries as a personality working from an individual inspiration, but rather as a sculptor of the highest culture with many ideas and absolute knowledge and command of all the possibilities of developing them. But how many sculptors are there in the world who could show side by side a work of the robust power of his group of horses — even though these may suggest the horses at Marly-le-Roi and may not be so good as these last — and the charm of the "Bacchante"?



MISS AGNES LANE, MISS PHŒBE A. HEARST, AND MISS ANNE APPERSON.
By John Flanagan.

Mr. Paul Bartlett, medalled in 1889, and therefore member of the jury and *hors concours* in this Exposition, is another man who held a high place of honor in the American group. Mr. Bartlett's talent, to my mind, is never best shown in his large statues, which sometimes, as in the "Michael Angelo" of the Grand Palais, lack simplicity and grandeur, but the "General Lafayette" unveiled in Paris the 4th of last July is now one of the fine statues of the French capital. It is full of movement, splendid in its modelling, and a work of great distinction and elegance.

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INDIAN AND HORSE.

By Solon H. Borglum—this was awarded a Silver Medal at the Exposition.

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George Gray Barnard is one of the sculptors who was most noticed because of his marked individuality, his fashion of transforming the antique according to his own temperament, evidently strongly imbued with the American spirit of originality. This was especially seen in the "God Pan," placed out of doors, near the Pont Alexandre III. From all time the French conception of the god Pan has been a little *Monsieur* with horns on his head, while Mr. Barnard's Pan was a vague divinity embracing all nature, a strange, bizarre god, very much such a one as Edgar Poe would have conceived if he had undertaken to give his personal vision of Greek antiquity. The statue received a gold medal, and was a distinctly American triumph.

Mr. John Flanagan, one of Mr. Saint-Gaudens's best pupils, was another sculptor who, in his fine "Head of an Athlete," also interpreted the antique through an American temperament. His "Swift Runners," a beautiful bas-relief in which the racer whose forces were spent was handing a lighted torch on to his successor, is a work full of poetic symbolism and charm. Mr. Borglum in his "Horse and Indian" showed a piece of strong lifelike sculpture, particularly interesting in composition, which was full of American spirit. Both he and Mr. Flanagan were silver medal men. Mr. Rondebusch, again, in his lifelike



DANCING CHILDREN.
By Karl Bitter.



AN ATHLETE.
By John Flanagan.

"Wrestlers" gave an American version of an antique subject. Mr. Brooks in the "Statue of General Cass" and "The Song of the World" showed himself a brilliant artist. Mr. H. A. MacNeil was original in conception and strong in execution in "The Sun God." Bitter, Procter, Breuner, Graply, Mrs. Vonnoh, Mlle. Kuhne Beveridge, and Miss Enid Yandell all had exhibits of interest. In most of these, however, we found ourselves in the domain of three-quarters of the French sculptors, men who were perfect artisans in art, but not artists. The difference between the two is that the artist is capable of conceiving a great thing and executing it. The artisan has only the power of execution.

The conclusion that America may draw from the Sculpture Exhibit of the Exposition of 1900, if we may draw a conclusion, is that we must not have the idea that art, and sculpture in particular, is to be learned in France. Its source is in the individual soul of the artist, and the American who would reach the highest mark in it must first see to having a *belle âme Américaine*.

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THE BUILDING OF A GREAT CAPITAL

THE CENTENNIAL OF WASHINGTON AS THE SEAT OF THE NATIONAL GOVERNMENT—THE STORY OF ITS SELECTION AND OF ITS BUILDING—THE PARSIMONIOUS BEGINNINGS OF ONE OF THE HANDSOMEST CITIES OF THE WORLD

WASHINGTON, now become one of the great capitals of the world and one of its most beautiful cities, is fast becoming also one of the most attractive places of residence in any country. But a great impetus to its proper ornamentation is likely to follow the approaching celebration of the one-hundredth anniversary of the establishment of the national capital there. The story of its selection and of the early growth of the city is as interesting as it is opportune. It in a way is the history of the Union in epitome.

It cost the Federal Congress a long time and a bitter wrangle to decide where the capital should be; and the decision was made at last by a political "bargain."



WASHINGTON AND GEORGETOWN IN 1812.
From a contemporary print.

Sectional jealousies were strong, and members of Congress from New England and from New York were afraid that those from the South might gain undue advantage over them.

So stubborn grew the contest it was feared that the Republic, as yet none too strongly welded together, would be shattered before a settlement could be made, and but for the political sagacity of Alexander Hamilton, there might have been grave danger.

The Southern members, eagerly seconding Washington's fondly cherished desire, had asked that the seat of the Federal government be established on the banks of the Potomac; and when Congress refused this request, their anger had rivalled the anger of the Northern men at the opposition of the South to Federal assumption of state debts incurred during the Revolution. Might it not be, Hamilton asked Jefferson, at a chance meeting in front of the President's house in Philadelphia, that the Southern men would agree to vote for the assumption of the state debts if the Northern men would support a bill for a capital on the Potomac, and would not the Secretary of State exert his good offices to bring such a result about? The suggestion came as if upon the thought of the moment; but it was so earnestly and eloquently put forward by Hamilton that Jefferson declared that "although a stranger to the whole subject," he would be glad to lend what aid he could.

With his powerful aid the assumption bill secured the sanction of Congress.

THE SITE SELECTED BY WASHINGTON

The site of the present city, covering the lower portion of the district, was selected by Washington in January, 1791, but it had been admired by him many years before. When a boy he saw it while riding the country on horseback, and he spoke of it when as a young man he camped with Braddock on the hill where the Naval Observatory now stands.

Washington, always more of a merchant and engineer than artist, had thoughts of a great commercial city there, with the navigable Potomac reaching to the sea to help it in the race for supremacy; and it was with more than his usual zeal and hopefulness that,

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in the early spring of 1791, Washington set about planning the future seat of government. The private owners of the land proved a source of vexation and of some delay. Many of these were the descendants of a little band of Scotch and Irish who had settled on the land a hundred years before, and had inherited from their fathers ability to drive a hard bargain.

OLD DAVID BURNS AND HIS FARM

Aged David Burns, a justice of the peace and a tobacco planter in a small way, proved the most stubborn and greedy of all. Even Washington was at first unable to do anything with "obstinate Mr. Burns," who did not want a capital at his front door, and did not care whether or not the seat of government came to the banks of the Potomac. Washington argued with him for several days, explaining to him the advantages he was resisting; to all which, so the tradition runs, Burns made reply: —

"I suppose you think people here are going to take every grist that comes from you as pure grain; but what would you have been if you had not married the widow Custis?"

Burns at last capitulated, and transferred his six hundred acres, which he did not wish to see spoiled for a good farm to make a poor capital, on the same terms that had been made with the other owners of the site — the government to have one lot and the original owner one lot alternately, the latter being also paid $125 per acre for such part of his land as might be taken for public use. Burns stipulated that the modest house in which he lived should not be interfered with in the laying out of the city; and since this condition was agreed to by Washington, Burns's cottage stood until a few years ago, one of the historical curiosities of the capital.

After David Burns, the most considerable owners of the land taken for the federal city were Samuel Davidson, Notley Young, and David Carroll, the last named one of the three commissioners selected by Washington to have entire charge of the surveying and laying out of the district and the erection of the necessary public buildings. The other commissioners were Thomas Johnson, of Maryland, and David Stuart, of Virginia; and on April 15, 1791, with impressive Masonic ceremony, and in the presence of a goodly assemblage, they laid the first boundary stone of the district at



LOOKING OVER THE CITY ABOUT 1820.

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THE VAN NESS HOUSE.
A famous Washington landmark.

Jones's Point, on the Virginia side of the Potomac. Early in the following September, the commissioners decided to call the federal district the Territory of Columbia, — a title changed some years later to the District of Columbia; and the city to be established on the river bank the City of Washington — this without the knowledge of the President, but with the common consent of Congress and the people.

THE DESIGNER OF THE CITY

Meanwhile, Major Pierre Charles L'Enfant had been chosen by Washington to draw the plan of "the new Federal town." L'Enfant, a Frenchman, and a kinsman of D'Estang, was a skilful military engineer who had come to America in April, 1777, in the train of Lafayette. He devoted the spring and summer of 1791 to elaborating his plans for the projected city. One point he quickly settled — he would not plan for thirteen states and three millions of people, but for a republic of fifty states and five hundred million; not for a single century, but for a thousand years. Dominated by this thought, he builded better and wiser than any one in his lifetime was willing to admit; for the chief men of his day, meagrely educated and reared in the practice of the strictest private economy, were provincial in their ideas of art and government expenditure. Jefferson was almost the only man then conspicuous in public life who had had the advantages of extensive foreign travel; and even Jefferson wished the city laid out in the regularity of squares, with all the streets intersecting at right angles, as in Philadelphia, and, unfortunately, in most other American cities. L'Enfant made the regular chessboard squares as Jefferson wished, but he put in so many avenues running at acute angles that the monotonous effect was happily destroyed and the opportunity presented for making the capital the magnificent city it has since become.

The states of Maryland and Virginia, prompted by the location of the federal capital within their borders, voted $192,000 to the United States to aid in the erection of the projected public buildings; and in March, 1792, soon after the completion of the survey of the city, the commissioners advertised for designs for the Capitol and for "the President's house," offering in each instance a premium of $500 and a building lot to the author of the accepted design. Among the submitted designs for the Executive Mansion was one by James Hoban, a young architect



THE OLD DAVID BURNS COTTAGE.
One of the original houses on the site of Washington.

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of Charleston, South Carolina. This design, which followed that of the palace of the Duke of Leinster in Dublin, being approved, Hoban was awarded the premium, and engaged at a salary of one hundred guineas per year to superintend the construction of the mansion, which was soon called the White House.

THE DESIGNS FOR THE CAPITOL

For the Capitol sixteen designs were submitted by as many architects; but all, after careful examination, were counted unworthy of serious consideration. Soon, however, Stephen L. Hallett, a French architect residing in New York, sent to the commissioners a sketch of a design which met with favor, and he was invited to perfect it. Hallett had not completed his labors when Dr. William Thornton, an Englishman who had lately taken up his residence in America, submitted a design to Washington and Jefferson which so pleased them that the President requested its adoption, suggesting that as Thornton had no practical knowledge of architecture, the execution of his design be intrusted to Hallett.



A VIEW OF WASHINGTON ABOUT 1840.

Thornton's design thereupon was accepted by the commissioners, and Hallett was appointed supervising architect with a salary of $400 per year. The corner stone of what was to be the north wing of the Capitol was laid on September 18, 1792, when Washington delivered an oration and the Grand Master of the Maryland Free Masons an appropriate address. "After the ceremony," to quote a contemporary account of the affair, "the assemblage retired to an extensive booth, where they enjoyed a barbecue feast."

THE POVERTY OF THE TIME

Ill-timed and unseemly bickerings between architect and commissioner, the opposition of L'Enfant to raising funds by a public sale of lots, and many such difficulties delayed the completion of the north wing till 1800; but even these were not the only obstacles with which the builders of the federal city were compelled to contend. At the first sale of lots the hurtful rumor was industriously spread that Congress would never remove to the Potomac, but would remain at Philadelphia. In 1792 Washington wrote to the commissioners that unless greater activity prevailed, their whole previous labor might be lost; and later, he was obliged to make residence on the spot compulsory with them. Most serious and embarrassing of all was the ever present need of money. It had been hoped that before the sums subscribed by Virginia and Maryland were expended, the sales of lots would supply the balance needed to complete the public buildings. This expectation was only partly realized, — many of the early contracts for the sale of lots were afterwards repudiated, — and before the walls of the Capitol and the White House had reached the roof line, the commissioners were obliged, in 1796, to ask Congress for an appropriation of money. Congress responded to this request by authorizing the commissioners to negotiate a loan of $300,000. This loan was guaranteed by the government, but the money was not to be had on the terms proposed. After some delay, the state of Maryland, at Washington's personal request, took two-thirds of the loan, stipulating that the commissioners, who were all men of means, should add their individual guarantee to that of Congress — a startling indication of the government's poor credit. In 1798 Congress, again appealed to by the commissioners, voted an appropriation of $100,000, and in the following year the state of Maryland lent them half that sum, requiring, as before, private security for its repayment.

As a result of all these efforts, work on the Capitol and the White House made fair progress, and two other public buildings were begun and pushed to completion. The last named, brick structures, two stories high and containing thirty rooms each, were erected at

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Photograph by Gardner.

A BIRD'S-EYE VIEW OF WASHINGTON FROM THE MONUMENT.

the corners of the twenty-acre plot, set down on L'Enfant's design as "the President's grounds." One, known as the Treasury Department building, occupied a portion of the site of the present Treasury building. The War Office, as the other building was called, occupied the site of the central portion of the present State, War, and Navy Building. This latter building, enlarged by the addition of a third story and a wing, was known in later years as the Navy Department Building, being removed in 1871 to make room for the new building.

THE CITY AS WASHINGTON LAST SAW IT

When Washington last beheld the city which bears his name, shortly before his death in 1799, it was a straggling settlement in the woods, almost wholly devoid of streets, with thirty or forty residences, — most of these small and uncomfortable, — and an unfinished Capitol and President's house. Indeed, Washington long remained a sparsely built, unsightly city and a comfortless place of residence. For more than a generation its growth in population was less than six hundred a year, a rate of increase that would now put to shame almost any village in the land; and so late as 1840 De Bacourt, the French Minister, could write that Washington was "neither a city, nor a village, nor the country," but "a building-yard placed in a desolate spot, wherein living is unbearable."

All this was changed by the struggle for the Union, which doubled the population of Washington and brought in freedom and Northern enterprise, but more important still, by a thousand moving and glorious associations, endeared the capital to the people of the whole country. Then came its re-making by Shepherd and his associates. Now it is a truly imperial city, and the judgment of Washington and the genius of L'Enfant have been vindicated.

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"I'm afeard to take any of the issues to my bosom, I've had so many disap'intments, I've come to the conclusion that the best thing to do is to wave the old flag an' go in for number one."

MR. SANDERS TO A BOSTON CAPITALIST

HOW POLITICS AND BUSINESS BOARD AT THE SAME HOUSE—THE DISAPPEARANCE OF OLD-FASHIONED POLITICAL PRINCIPLES BOTH IN BOSTON AND IN GEORGIA—IS THE YANKEE "GWINE TO DRAP OUT'N THE GAME"?

BY

JOEL CHANDLER HARRIS

IT should not be forgotten that the world's work goes on in Harmony Grove just as it does elsewhere, though it may be as well to pay the inhabitants of the village the compliment of saying that they are not trying as hard to get rich in a day as the people of some other communities. Nevertheless, they believe in progress.

It need occasion no surprise, then, that on a particular day, not so very long ago, the presence of a capitalist in the village had caused a larger crowd than usual to assemble on the veranda of the tavern. The capitalist was from Boston, and he was looking over the ground preparatory to building a cotton mill. He had been taken in charge by Colonel Augustus Tidwell, a well-known corporation attorney.

His coming had been heralded by the local newspapers (in connection with a warm tribute to Colonel Tidwell), and the most of those who had seen the account had expected to meet a stout, florid man with side-whiskers, and with very decided views as to his own importance. The surprise was great, therefore, when the capitalist turned out to be a plain and simple man, with apparently no views of his own. He soon won the respect and confidence of those who, to say the least, are a trifle suspicious of strangers.

Now on the particular day when the crowd on the veranda seemed to be the largest, Mr. Sanders put in an appearance. He was introduced to the gentleman from Boston, and appeared to be very much pleased with him. After some general conversation, during which Mr. Sanders looked the stranger over very carefully, he remarked casually that there didn't seem to be such a great difference between a Boston man and a Georgian, after all.

"Did you expect to see any striking difference?" the gentleman asked.

"Well, not in form an' figger," replied Mr. Sanders, blandly; "but in these parts, some of the evil-minded have got a notion

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that you Boston folks talk with a kind of twang — a sort of a cross betwixt a French horn an' a fiddle. The fact is, I had some sech idee myself, an' I had a mighty good reason for it. A day or two before the war, I went out to Injianny for to see my kinnery, an' they used to keep my teeth on edge all the time. My cousin's wife — an' a mighty good 'oman she was, too — used to have a way of hollerin', 'Sary Jane! shet the door!' an' the way she said it would fetch out the goose-flesh all up an' down my spine. I laid off to fetch some of her R's home an' use 'em for gimlets. Why, you could take one on 'em an' bore a hole plum through a ten-inch scantlin', be jigged ef you couldn't!"

At this point Mr. Sanders caught the eye of Mr. Tidwell, the well-known lawyer, and a broad smile went rippling across his face.

"I see you've hitched on to Gus," the old man remarked. "'Twouldn't surprise me one bit to hear that Gus was mighty glad to see you when you stepped ashore."

Several in the crowd indulged in laughter at this remark, and the capitalist concluded to humor whatever joke there might be in it. "Yes," he said, "Mr. Tidwell has been very courteous, and I am greatly indebted to him."

"Well, I allowed you'd be in debt to Gus before you was here many minnits," responded Mr. Sanders, with a very solemn face. "Gus is one among the few in this neck of the woods that's got the ginnywine Atlanty gait. Talk about Yankees! — well, they ain't cut the'r eye-teeth till they've done some tradin' in Atlanty. That town is made up of crosses betwixt Georgy crackers an' East Tennesseeans, an' they beat the world. Turn one on 'em in the same room wi' a Jew, an' when they come out, some un'd have to take aroun' a supscription paper for to git money enough to pay the Jew's way out'n town. Oh, yes! Gus'll show you how the thing's done!"

"Mr. Sanders always has a crow to pick with me," explained the lawyer, with a laugh.

"Why, what good would it do me for to pick a crow wi' you, Gus? I wouldn't be able to tote off narry a feather; an' ef I did, you'd make out a bill for it, an' collect intrust on it down to the minnit the account was paid.

"I persume," said Mr. Sanders, turning to the gentleman from Boston, "that you line up wi' Mark an' Mack on the gener'l issues of the day?"

"Well, I'm not so certain about that," replied the capitalist. "I used to be a rather warm Republican, but — well, the issues have changed."

"I wonder!" exclaimed Mr. Sanders. "You've got on good clothes, too, an' I've heard the boys whisperin' behin' the'r han's that you've got a right smart stack of blue chips. An' you say the issues have changed? Well, I'm glad of it from the bottom of my heart; yes, sir, I'm proud to hear the word. I've heard talk of the tariff ever sence I could look over a duck's back — free trade an' pertection; tariff for revenue only; free silver; sound money; the honest dollar — Lord! it seems like a dream that it's all over an' done wi'. I'm mighty much afeard it's too good to be true. An' it's got so now that a man can wa'r good clothes, an' have money, an' come from Boston, an' still not be right certain an' shore that he's a Republican! Be jigged ef 'tain't 'bout time for old Brer Lion to strut out'n the bushes an' git under cover wi' the lamb."

"No doubt it seems queer to you. In fact, it is queer to me; but that is the state of the case," the gentleman declared.

"Well, I'm mighty glad to hear it, an' yit they's a fly in the 'intment. It's good news for me, but I don't reckon Gus thar will like it."

"Here he comes with another crow," said Colonel Tidwell, laughing.

"Oh, no, Gus; this is a buzzard." At this the crowd laughed heartily.

"I can't imagine why the Colonel should be worried about it," the visiting capitalist suggested.

"That's because you don't know how sensitive he is," replied Mr. Sanders. "Well, fifteen or twenty year ago me an' Gus, an' likewise beloved friend Mack up yander in Washin'ton, was all journeymen greenbackers. We know'd, in reason, that nothin' on the face of the yeth would save the country but a pile of greenbacks as big an' as high as a meetin'-house. Mack, he kept things warm in Ohio, an' Gus helt up our eend of the line in these parts. Then when we found out

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that the wealthy classes had determ'd to pervent the issue of more paper, we went in for specie — we took up silver; an' here we went, whoopin' an' hollerin' — not only me an' Gus, but Mack, too. An' then, some'rs along in thar, Gus he took an' defected. He got to shavin' notes an' buyin' up mor'gages, an' he purty soon come to believe that 16 for 1 was a heap better than 16 to 1; an' then about that time, Mack, he deserted the banner, an' things has been gittin' more lonesomer all the time.

"The fact is," Mr. Sanders went on, "it's come to that pass wi' me that I'm afeard to take any of the issues to my bosom, I've had so many disap'intments. I've come to the conclusion that the best thing to do is to wave the old flag an' go in for number one. You may say what you please about the parties, but it's made manifest in the fleshpots that too much an' too many principles, an' all the old sentiments, is a burden to the politicians, an' for the last thirty year or more they've been a-drappin' 'em over the fence on both sides of the road, an' a-flingin' 'em in the bushes. Why, in these times of trade an' business, a feller ain't got time for to git out his Sunday-school books to see whether he's a-walkin' in the straight an' narrer path. Ef you're agwine to keep up wi' the percession, you'll have to git behind Hanna an' Mack on the plank road, an' you'll have to keep a-movin' ef you don't want to git run over."

"I take it, then," said the visiting capitalist, smiling, "that you believe in practical politics. So do I, but there should be a limit to practical politics. There is no reason why the republic and its institutions should be sacrificed to the greed of men and parties."

"That's mighty purty talk," Mr. Sanders assented, "but, shoo! it sounds like it was fished from the bottom of a dream. Why, ef Mark was to hear you gwine on that away, he'd be tickled to death; he'd think it was a tale told for the purpose of foolin' the people. When you talk about limits, you make me feel like I'm in a game of draw, knowin' that the other feller is boun' to ring in a cold deck on me. You don't have to go to the dictionary to find out about some matters. Ef you'll take me by my lily-white han' an' lead me to the jumpin'-off place, I'll show you the limits to folks's greediness. It's mighty nigh come to the pass where it's a tussle betwixt next-door neighbors as to who shall have what the other's got. Ef we could keep this sperrit in politics, all'd be well; but the lesson that you fellers has been a-teachin' us for the last thirty year is that politics an' business board at the same house, an' sleep in the same bed. That bein' the case, what's the use of fetchin' in a rule that won't fit the game, no matter how you fix it? What's the use of talkin' about principles an' patr'itism at this time of day? It's like puttin' a great big block on a mighty little dog. Ef you're gwine to block your dog, git one that he can haul from trough to platter.

"I'm old enough for to be gray in the mind, an' I've allers took notice that men in trade or politics is turribly hampered ef they don't wrop th'r principles in a camphor rag till after hours. Why, 'taint been so mighty long ago that I heard talk of a preacher gittin' up in the pulpit an' sayin' that prosperity is one mighty good sign of Christ'anity. 'Twas a bran'-new idee to me, bekaze I never come across it in my Bible, much as I've read it. The way I account for that is that my Bible was printed in the thirties, an' I reckon they've got a new one out by this time."

"Some of our most distinguished and successful business men are noted for the interest they take in church work," suggested the visiting capitalist. "Don't you think they are setting a fine example to the rising generation?"

"Tooby shore, tooby shore!" exclaimed Mr. Sanders, enthusiastically. "Gus thar is one of our handiest men in church work. It's a great blessin' to be able to rake in intrust all day endyorin' of the week, an' then have the pleasure of passin' round the hat on Sunday. They say Gus smacks his mouth ev'ry time he hears a nickle drap. An' then, ag'in, when you come to look at it right close, it must be a great relaxation for a preacher who's persumably been studyin' the Bible all the week to git up in the pulpit an' talk politics on Sunday, an' git patted on the back by the wealthy members of the congregation. It kinder keeps things evened up. As for me, I'm not much of a church-worker, but I can set in thar an' sleep jest as sound as any of my pew-neighbors. It's all

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a matter of habit an' practice. A man can go to church an' sleep, or he can go to work the brethering; but ef he's agwine to be a success in politics or business, he's got to find out early in the game that he can't afford to be hampered wi' too much sentiment an' too many principles."

"Well, it is certainly true that trade an' business are of very great importance," said the capitalist, "but I think that principles are of still greater importance."

"Oh, you do?" exclaimed Mr. Sanders. "Well, you can talk that way down here, but you better not talk it too loud up thar whar you come from. They tell me that the syndicaters is ready to call out Teddy an' the army when a feller begins for to talk about right an' jestice, an' little things like that. Thar's your leadin' man up thar; didn't he have to take water on the gener'l proposition? Seems to me I seed somethin' about it in the newspapers."

"You refer to Senator Hoar," suggested the gentleman from Boston. "Well, it is no secret that he has disappointed some of his best friends."

"Well, I don't reckon that hurts his feelin's much. He says p'intedly that Mack is the most beloved president sence George W. sot in the cheer and cussed out the cook. The meanin' of that is that Hoar is dead in love wi' Mack. I ruther like Hoar," Mr. Sanders went on. "About a dozen year ago, the boys wanted to have kind of a bill passed, an' nothin' would do 'em but I must go along. Well, they fooled along with the bill, an' jest for fun I got our member to try an' see ef he couldn't ring in Murder Creek on the Navigation bill. Well, your man Hoar got hold of the name — Murder Creek — an' after he found out it was a Southern projick, he got on the floor an' ripped aroun' an' snorted, an' waved his coat-tails, an' pawed the air, an' ripped his britches, an' got red in the face, an' jest wouldn't have it. 'Is it right,' says he, 'for to rob the soldiers an' sailors of this great nation, an' pinch the stomachs of the'r wives an' orphans, in order to waste the substance of the republic on a scheme to dredge Murder Creek?' says he. And as ef that wan't enough, he riz up on his hind legs an' called the calm attention of the loy'l people of the republic to the name of the stream — 'MURDER CREEK!' he yelled, an' you mought 'a' heard him two mile. I never know'd what bloody-minded folks me an' my neighbors was till Hoar told me all about it in that speech. I was most as sorry for Hoar as I was for myself. He never has found out, I reckon, that he made all that fuss over a neighborhood joke that's forty year older'n he is. Murder Creek will hardly float a chip. In a drouth, you wouldn't know they was a creek or a branch in ten mile of the Creek.

"But I know'd then, jest as well as I know now, that he didn't keer a thrip for the Murder Creek item; he was just a-talkin' for home consumption. That's what he was doin' when he lit on Mack's Philippener scheme. He know'd jest how fur his principles would go, an' when he got to the p'int whar the string got tight, he jest cut 'em loose, an' left 'em in the bushes, an' fell blubberin' on Mack's heavin' bosom, lookin' a little sheepish maybe, but feelin' jest as good as ef he'd never heern tell of principles. An' I tell you he flung 'em away in the nick of time, too. He had already hollered out in a sperrit of forgitfulness that Mack's scheme would be the ruination of the republic. A little more, an' he'd 'a' done some damage. But now he's got two records — he's a patr't at home an' a Hanna man at the White House."

"Well, in Boston, the most substantial republicans are not in favor of the programme of imperialism," said the visiting capitalist. "We are very heartily in favor of the expansion of trade and business, but we are just as heartily in favor of justice and right. We don't believe that trade can be increased by killing people, and we don't believe that Congress has any power to act outside the Constitution."

"Why, you don't tell me!" exclaimed Mr. Sanders. "You don't mean to say that after preachin' to we-all down here that trade and business an' money an' development an' commercialism is the mainstays of life, an' the hope of the Nation — you don't mean to say that you're gwine to throw down your hand an' drap out'n the game jest as we've begun to git a few chips on our side of the table! Well, well! after that I reckon I'd better go an' hunt in Gus's back-room an' see if he's left anything in the bottle."

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A NOTABLE ADVANCE IN COLOR PHOTOGRAPHY

COLOR NEGATIVES MADE IN AN ORDINARY CAMERA — SUCCESSFUL DEVELOPMENT OF AN OLD PRINCIPLE — FIRST PHOTOGRAPHS IN COLOR OF MOVING OBJECTS—SCREENS WITH 531 LINES TO THE INCH

"IT is now possible for a newspaper correspondent in China to take snap shots in his ordinary camera, fitted with a newly perfected screen, to send the negative to New York, and there have the picture reproduced *in all its original colors*, the printer having no previous knowledge of the colors themselves."

This is the somewhat startling claim made by two American inventors, Mr. C. L. A. Brasseur and Mr. Sebastian P. Sampolo. A sample of their work, showing the progressive steps of the method will be found as a special insert in this issue of THE WORLD'S WORK. It opens up a whole new world of possibilities in the field of illustration, the modern development of which has been one of the Seven Wonders of our time, though we who are in the midst of it all hardly realize the fact. In an hour to-day any one with eyes can learn more about the externals of China and the Chinese, for instance, than would have been possible by any conceivable means short of a visit to that country twenty-five years ago. The causes are improved photographs and the consequent extension of illustration in newspapers, magazines, and books.

But so far as color is concerned we are almost as badly off as our forefathers. The camera is not only inefficient, but often an astounding liar in its reports of the colors upon which it looks; and the successful accomplishment of what Messrs. Brasseur and Sampolo believe they have done would soon work most revolutionary changes in the matter of making pictures.

Every reader of current magazines and books is familiar with the results of what is known as "three-color work."

With all its present shortcomings, this process may fairly be credited with having done more than any other influence to give us satisfactory colored pictures at a reasonable price. Truth of form it achieves absolutely, photographically; and its defects are due to the mechanical difficulties of applying an absolutely correct theory.

But three-color work has limitations that have greatly hampered its development. Roughly speaking, the process consists in making three different half-tone negatives through as many colored screens. That is to say, the object or painting is placed before the camera as if an ordinary black and white half-tone (the usual sort of magazine illustration nowadays) were to be made; but between the lens and the half-tone screen is placed a piece of glass of a peculiar yellowish color; and then from this negative a printing block is made by the usual method. A second negative is made through a screen of red glass, and a third through a blue screen, plates being similarly obtained from each. By printing the plate made through the blue glass in a yellow ink, that made through the yellow screen in a reddish ink on top of it, and the third in a blue ink on top of these, all the original colors are produced.

Such at least is the theory, — and when proper pigments and exact registration are employed, the results are beyond criticism.[1]

As can be seen, this method is most cumbersome and the picture or object to be reproduced must be taken to the engraver's gallery. The exposure for the blue plate alone requires from five to thirty minutes (a year or two ago it was frequently over an hour), and the other colors take from thirty seconds to three

[1] As an instance of the difficulties, it may be stated that the only color known which gives approximately the luminous purple-red needed is rhodamin-, one of the coal tar colors; but unfortunately this fades in a few hours! So the printers have to use the next best, a bluish red, which is by no means exactly right.

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1. THE ORIGINAL PRINT, made in an ordinary camera with instantaneous exposure, through a finely-ruled glass screen.

2. THE YELLOW PLATE, the first step in the process of breaking up the picture into the three colors.



3. THE RED PLATE.



4. RED AND YELLOW COMBINED.



5. THE BLUE PLATE.



6. COMBINATION OF THE THREE COLORS.

A TIGER.

Showing the different steps in obtaining a picture in colors from a single negative by the Sampolo-Brasseur process. (*See "A Notable Advance in Color Photography."*)

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minutes additional. Of course this limits one to a very restricted range of subjects.

By this newly perfected process, however, only one negative need be made. It requires an exposure of only from $\frac{1}{10}$ to $\frac{1}{60}$ of a second, and the three plates into which this original is subdivided are just as accurate as those made by the old awkward plan. For the first time, therefore, photographic color prints of moving objects are possible.

What these inventors have done is to make a commercial possibility of an old theory by ruling glass screens with infinite fineness and accuracy and in breaking up the original tives, but if it be examined under a microscope, it will be found to consist of three interwoven images corresponding with the three sets of lines of the taking screen (see Figure 1).

Suitable printing plates must now be made from each one of these interwoven images. This is done by placing a black and white screen (Figure 2) over the positive in such a way as to hide two of the images and leave only the third one visible, say the yellow (Figure 3). A half-tone negative is made of this (see Figure 4), and during the exposure the most important step occurs: the negative plate (see Figure 4) is moved continuously

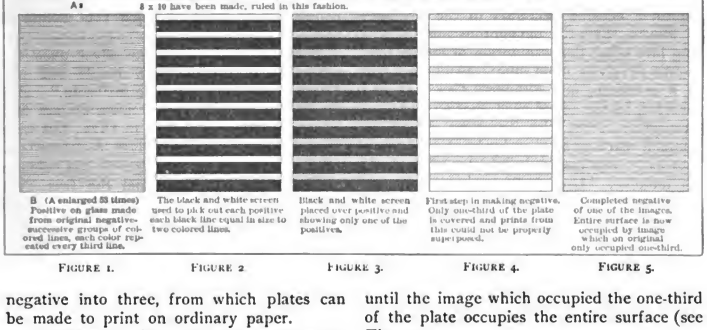


FIGURE 1. FIGURE 2 FIGURE 3. FIGURE 4. FIGURE 5.

negative into three, from which plates can be made to print on ordinary paper.

All makes of ruled polychrome screens can be used to obtain the necessary negatives for the Sampolo-Brasseur process. The best are those ruled in lines in groups of threes, one line being in a reddish orange color, one in a yellowish green, and the other in a blue violet color. These colors may vary somewhat, as the dry plates of different makers are not equally sensitive to the various colors of the spectrum. In case of a serious departure from these colors, corresponding changes must be made in the printing inks used.

The screens made by Mr. Brasseur have 531 lines per inch with no mistakes in any inch of more than one fifty-thousandth of that space.

Having obtained the necessary negative, a positive on glass is made. This positive is apparently no different from ordinary positive until the image which occupied the one-third of the plate occupies the entire surface (see Figure 5).

This is essential, as to obtain the proper colors the prints must be superposed and not juxtaposed as they were in the original positive. The screen (Figure 2) is now shifted the width of one line, covering up the image of which a printing plate has been made and exposing a new image, say the red one; a plate is made of this one and the operation is repeated for the third image, the blue one.

Not only does this new method give an infinitely extended range to color photography, but the black and white prints are far superior to ordinary ones, as the color values are reproduced with absolute fidelity. In an ordinary photograph of the American flag, for instance, the blue would come almost white, and the red black, — a falsification of values entirely corrected by the Sampolo-Brasseur method.

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THE GREATEST OF FINANCIAL FEATS

THE RESUMPTION OF SPECIE PAYMENTS BY SECRETARY SHERMAN — A DRAMATIC EVENT IN OUR HISTORY

BY

J. K. UPTON

ASSISTANT SECRETARY OF THE TREASURY UNDER MR. SHERMAN

THE resumption of specie payments and the restoration of the credit of the government under the load of war debt was one of the most dramatic achievements in all history. When Mr. John Sherman became Secretary of the Treasury in March, 1877, the momentous task of putting into effect the resumption of specie payments devolved upon him. Gold was still at a premium, and although Congress had directed, by the act of 1875, that on and after January 1, 1879, the Treasury should on demand exchange greenbacks for gold, it was extremely uncertain whether this would be possible. United States notes (greenbacks) to the amount of 362 millions were outstanding when the act was passed, though an earlier act then in operation would have reduced the total to 300 millions before the day set for resumption, had the act remained in operation until that time.

To meet this anticipated liability of 300 millions, Mr. Sherman decided that it would be necessary to accumulate gold to the amount of 120 millions. He believed that this gold reserve of 40 per cent would be ample to meet all demands, since, when the notes could be exchanged for gold, gold would be preferred as more convenient. One half of this sum was obtained in the first five months, by bond sales and from customs receipts. There was left seventeen months in which to raise the rest. The great problem seemed almost to be solving itself.

Mr. Sherman's handling of these bond sales was in itself enough to mark him as a great financier. When he took office a contract already existed with a syndicate of New York and London bankers, by which they were bound to buy at par a fixed amount of bonds. The demand for the bonds was increasing, and Mr. Sherman, believing that the terms given the syndicate were too liberal, brought the agreement to an end. On June 9, 1877, another contract was made by which the public was to have an equal chance with the bankers at an issue of 4 per cent bonds at par.

With the agitation of the silver question, subscriptions for the new bonds fell off. These bonds were payable in "coin." Authority for the coinage of silver dollars had been discontinued by law in 1873; but with the fall in the price of silver, a determined effort was made to recommence the coinage of these pieces. To dispel the fear thus excited that the bonds would eventually be paid off in a depreciated currency, Mr. Sherman addressed a letter to Mr. F. O. French, of New York, saying:—

> "The essential element of good faith in preserving the equality in value between the coinage in which the government receives and that in which it pays these bonds will be sacredly observed by the government and the people of the United States."

This declaration was accepted as having almost the authority of law, and eventually furnished one of the most effective arguments against the free silverites.

The bright prospect which the first steps in preparing for resumption had seemed to open was soon overclouded. War broke out in the Orient, which threatened to involve all Europe, and an unexpected foreign demand for gold was created. At home the clamor arose for free silver, supplemented by the noisy cry of the greenbackers. The threat of repudiation involved in these schemes depressed our securities in London, sending home in one week 75 millions of dollars'

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worth of them, and drawing gold from New York in return. When Congress met in October, the first day of the session saw thirteen bills presented for the repeal of the Resumption Act, one of which passed the House without even a division. Many of the members who favored resumption lost heart, and a postponement of the project seemed imminent.

In the midst of this depression, Mr. Sherman was called before the Senate Finance Committee and asked: —

"Do you think the Resumption Act had better be repealed?"

He replied unhesitatingly: —

"I think not. Half of the fund has already been accumulated; a year remains in which to accumulate the rest. Repeal the act, and inflation will follow; either repudiation will result or the long and weary agony and struggle toward resumption will be renewed. Gold can be obtained by the sale of bonds in sufficient amount for the purpose. It is useless to take any steps backwards. If resumption is ever to be accomplished, now is the time."

It was plain that Mr. Sherman was persistently determined to resume specie payment in due time, if Congress would let him alone.

A little later the House Committee on Banking and Currency had an interview with a delegation of New York bankers, most of whom were evidently opposed to resumption, at that time at least. One of the delegation declared he would give $50,000 for a place at the head of the line at the Sub-Treasury in New York the day gold should be paid out at par for United States notes. The Committee largely shared the views of this delegation.

A few days later Mr. Sherman was called before the Committee and asked what he intended to do. He told its members very clearly that if let alone he proposed to carry out the law, and to redeem in coin on and after January 1st, all legal tender notes presented for that purpose at the New York Sub-Treasury.

To that end he proposed to increase the resumption fund by selling at once 50 millions of bonds, and more later if necessary. He was not afraid with the proposed reserve of 40 per cent to undertake resumption. The Bank of England when it resumed specie payments in 1822 had a reserve of only 22 per cent; state banks had for years redeemed notes on demand with a reserve of 33 per cent. If an extraordinary emergency should arise, he still had power to sell bonds to replenish the reserve.

In answer to an inquiry he said that he did not care what the "New York cashiers" had said; he wanted to know only what Congress proposed to do. If the Resumption Act was to be repealed, the sooner the fact was known the better. But of his ability to resume specie payments he admitted of no doubt. The interview lasted three days. At the end, Mr. Buckner, of the Committee, who had thought Mr. Sherman a visionary theorist, said he should interpose no further objections to the project. "But," he added to Mr. Sherman, "if you fail, you will be the deadest man in the country."

Mr. Ewing, another member, was not so complaisant. Coming from Mr. Sherman's own state, he probably thought it would help his political fortunes if he could only down the pugnacious Secretary. Squelched at the interview, he later ventured to declare his disbelief in the reported accumulation of gold in the New York Sub-Treasury. To satisfy this doubting Thomas, he was taken through the vaults and permitted to open the bags and count the gold to his heart's content. Nothing further was heard of him or his "phantom gold."

The bonds for securing the necessary gold reserve had, however, not yet been sold. There was little demand in any quarter for Government securities. The 4 per cents were below par, and the 4½ per cents hardly better off. To put more bonds on such a market would have meant a disastrous fall in the price.

Under these circumstances Mr. Sherman, on April 8, 1878, visited New York, and met that evening at the Fifth Avenue Hotel Mr. August Belmont and the members of a syndicate of bankers to whom bonds had previously been sold. He announced to them that he proposed to sell 50 millions of 4½ per cents for resumption purposes, and invited their coöperation, telling them he would like to get 103. They made no promises, but said they would consider the proposition and let him know the next day.

But Mr. Sherman had another string to his

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bow. On the following morning he made to the representatives of the leading national banks substantially the same proposition. They asked for time to confer, and Mr. Sherman gave them twenty-four hours. That afternoon Mr. Belmont announced that the syndicate would give 101 for 100 millions of the bonds, one half for resumption and one half for refunding purposes.

Mr. Sherman promised a definite answer the following day.

Next morning brought from the representatives of the national banks an offer to take 50 millions of 4 per cents at par. This was the best they could do. On Mr. Sherman's asking them whether he should accept an offer of 101 if he could get it, the answer was a decided "Yes!" In the afternoon he told the Belmont syndicate that he would sell them 50 millions of the bonds at 101½, the syndicate to be allowed a commission of ½ of one per cent, less all expenses in the making and delivering of the bonds. As the syndicate wanted the bonds, they took them on these terms.

The announcement of this transaction attracted much attention, and increased Mr. Sherman's reputation as a financier both at home and abroad, for it was considered a great achievement to have placed the loan at such favorable terms when the market price of Government bonds was below par.

While the gold for the bonds was being quietly obtained and turned into the Treasury, Mr. Sherman put his house in order for the grand event. He authorized gold to be purchased for notes at the several assay offices, and ordered interest on the public debt to be paid in coin at the New York office only. He also made an arrangement with the New York Clearing House to accept notes in payment of United States coin checks or drafts passing through its hands on and after January 1, 1879. Officers of customs were directed to receive United States notes in payment of duties on imports. All these arrangements helped guard the coin reserve against special depletion.

Notwithstanding these precautions, and the fact that the syndicate had completed its contract and the Treasury held about 140 millions of gold coin, the premium on gold was persistently maintained until past the middle of December. Even later there were rumors of a combination in New York for a run upon the Treasury on the opening of the New Year. The source of the rumors was unknown, and Mr. Sherman paid little heed to them.

But the president of the National Bank of Commerce, who was also chairman of the Clearing House Committee, became so alarmed that, with the advice of other bankers, at 3 o'clock P.M., on the 30th, he sent an urgent request for the transfer from the Sub-Treasury to his bank of $500,000 in gold, in exchange for a like amount of notes. Of course the request could not be granted; but coming from such a source it gave Mr. Sherman some uneasiness — an uneasiness which was increased by the fact that Congress had suspended the law by which the amount of the notes was reduced, so that instead of the 300 millions anticipated, there were 346 millions to be provided for.

The year therefore closed with some forebodings, Mr. Sherman regretting that he had not made his store 25 millions larger.

The first day of January came on Sunday. On Monday, after hours of waiting, the wires announced the first news from New York that all was quiet in Wall Street. Near 3 o'clock this message came from the New York Sub-Treasury: —

"125 millions of notes presented for coin, 400 millions of coin for notes."

Resumption was an accomplished fact!

The prediction of Mr. Sherman had become true. When gold could with certainty be obtained for the notes, nobody wanted it. The country breathed easier, and the "New York cashiers" had an opportunity to sip their tea in quiet and reflect upon the ease of prediction and the perversity of results.

Mr. Sherman was now recognized everywhere as the leading financier of the world. The Board of Trade of New York invited him to sit for a painting to be hung in its hall, an honor tendered no other man but Alexander Hamilton. Abroad his fame was on an equally high level. Through his efforts the credit of the country had been lifted from the mire and placed beyond suspicion. The world knew it, and paid him the homage he had earned.

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POLITICAL CHANGES OF THE CENTURY

INTENSE NATIONAL FEELING STRUGGLING WITH LIBERALISM SINCE THE NAPOLEONIC WARS—THE CONSEQUENT CHANGES ON THE MAP—THE LATER GROWTH OF COLONIAL AMBITIONS —THE DREAM OF WORLD-EMPIRE AS THE CENTURY ENDS

BY

DR. PAUL S. REINSCH

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WHEN the nineteenth century opened, the Napoleonic wars had already begun, the wars which changed the boundaries of European states almost daily, and which finally left their permanent impress on the map of Europe. In the settlement that followed the downfall of Napoleon, and by which the status of European states was fixed for almost half a century, all the important states except France gained considerable territorial accessions. Prussia annexed the Rhine Province, Westphalia, and the Province of Saxony. Russia secured the lion's share of Poland and the grand-duchy of Finland. England fell heir to the Dutch colonies of Ceylon and the Cape of Good Hope, while Austria established her overlordship over the Italian provinces of Venetia and Lombardy. Belgium and Holland were temporarily united, and the German states formed a lax confederation which took the place of the Holy Roman Empire, destroyed by Napoleon in 1806.

In making this settlement, the Congress of Vienna followed the diplomatic methods of the eighteenth century. It represented governments, not peoples, and hence there was no thought of consulting the needs and predilections of the people. The sole aim was to secure a mechanical balance between the states, and to allow no state to grow unless compensation could be made to its powerful rivals. This system, which is identified with the name of Metternich, preserved the peace of Europe for forty years, but it brought the peace of death and the quiet of the prison wall. The aspirations and ideals of the French Revolution were put under the ban. In internal government the old régime of absolute monarchy was restored. Alexander I. of Russia, who had given Poland a liberal constitution, and who in general favored reform, soon became reactionary under the influence of Metternich, whose sole principle of political action was "the preservation of every legally existing institution."

The true political history of the nineteenth century is the struggle of liberalism and nationalism to assert themselves against the dead weight of this reactionary régime.

A CENTURY OF NATIONALISM

The nineteenth century has become the age of nationalism, where everything is subordinated to the welfare and growth of the national state, which is considered the highest expression of civilization. How can we explain this development? How account for the power which this idea has exercised in the immediate past?

All the dynastic interests at the beginning of this century were hostile to it. They clung to the system of balance of power, by which all broader aspirations were to be kept down. Provinces were married and exchanged, and whole populations were bartered without a thought of their convenience. Of this policy Austria was the chief representative. For centuries her reigning house had pursued the policy of enriching itself, with a true disregard of all historical fitness. It made not the least difference whether the dowried princess lived in Spain, Italy, or Germany; she was married, with her lands, to the scion of the Hapsburg house. Thus, instead of building up a strong national state like England or France, Austria created simply an agglomeration of jarring nationalities; and it remained the policy of her

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court to stifle every aspiration for national political existence by her subject peoples.

But it was not only the interest of the courts and the diplomats that was hostile to nationalism. The whole spirit of the times was rather cosmopolitan and humanitarian than national. The belief in a general culture, in a common destiny of humanity, in the progress of the human race toward a millennium of universal brotherhood, — these were the constituent elements of the intellectual atmosphere of the time. Like Byron and Goethe, most cultured men considered themselves citizens of the world rather than of a particular state.

When thus apparently everything was opposed to the national idea, to what shall we attribute its growing strength and ultimate triumph? We may say that the tendency of history for the last five hundred years has been toward nationalism, away from the world-state idea of the Middle Ages; but how did individual men in the first half of our century become conscious of this movement, and enthusiastic for it, away from the cosmopolitan apathy and the dynastic interests that would have prevented its realization?

THE INFLUENCE OF NAPOLEON

This change in the minds of men is undoubtedly a result of the career and policy of Napoleon. By bringing the most incompatible elements together, by subjecting civilized peoples to the dominion of hated strangers, he led men to feel the necessity of national political unity and power, and thus aroused against his imperial policy a patriotic enthusiasm which became strong enough to wreck his career.

The experience of the great German philosopher, Fichte, is typical in this respect. He had been a thoroughgoing humanist, enthusiastic for the ideals of the French Revolution; but when the cohorts of Napoleon swept his native land, when the conqueror's army marched through his peaceful little Jena, he began to feel that the first need of life was a strong fatherland; and in his "Addresses to the German Nation" he became one of the first to stir up national patriotism. One of the results of the Napoleonic wars was the acquisition by Austria of some Italian provinces. Here, too, the domination of the stranger led to a burning desire for national strength and unity; and the Austrian oppression fired the courage and spirit of the Italian patriots.

The other great political force of the century, liberalism, though entirely distinct from nationalism, is often found in connection with it: it is often the reverse of the coin. A nation, to be strong and unified, needs a national consciousness, which best finds expression in a parliament and in the general participation of the people in political life. Self-government and the absence of a paternal administration are the core of the liberal system. It will be noted that when nations have fully developed they turn gradually away from the classic liberalism, as we see to-day, but during the middle period of the century these two great political forces in general worked together — nationalism and liberalism.

On the European continent the reaction was at its darkest during the twenties, when under Canning's leadership the dead pall was already being lifted in England. Alexander I. had become frightened at liberal agitation, and when in 1819 his agent, the writer Kotzebue, was murdered by students, it was easy for Metternich to persuade him of the dangerous character of liberalism. The Holy Alliance, in which Alexander was the leading spirit, therefore came to stand for everything that is dark and reactionary in politics. Not only in their own states were the monarchies anxious to suppress all freedom, but they were even ready to intervene in the affairs of other nations for the purpose of stifling nascent liberal agitation. Thus the Spanish colonies, which had revolted against their mother country, were to be reduced to obedience, and but for the promulgation of the Monroe Doctrine in 1823 and the diplomacy of Canning this would surely have been accomplished.

BOTH LIBERALISM AND NATIONALISM AT WORK

The first triumph won by nationalism in Europe was the independence of the Greeks. Canning recognized them as belligerents as early as 1823. Russia, to gain influence in the Orient, took up their cause, and in 1829 the kingdom of Greece was established. But all this was too far away from the centre of European affairs to have much influence upon them. The policy there remained intensely reactionary. In Prussia Hegel's philosophy, which canonizes the existing order, became

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the philosophy of the state, while Austria had the most rigid and unbearable system of censure and religious disabilities that could be devised.

It was France that saw the first open revolt against this policy of darkness. The effort of Charles X. to do away with the last remnant of the constitutional order led to the July revolution of 1830. The government, which was then established with the "Citizen King" Louis Philippe at its head and Guizot as its leading spirit, was, however, liberal only in name. It was thoroughly Whiggish, represented only the great property holders, the upper middle class, and it held its power by a lavish use of corruption. No wonder that in the midst of apparent prosperity it suddenly broke down in 1848 when no one was expecting a radical change. In France the revolution of 1830 was a liberal movement. In other parts of Europe it was national. Belgium severed its connection with Holland, and unhappy Poland made a frantic effort to gain its independence, but it was unsuccessful, and it was punished by the loss of the Polish constitution which had been granted in 1815.

The next revolutionary movement, that of 1848, also has a mixed liberal and national character. Under the leadership of Kossuth, the Hungarians established a short-lived independent national government. The Slavic population of Austria made a similar attempt. In Italy insurrections took place in Venice and Lombardy against Austria, and in the Papal States against the authority of the Pope. In Prussia the king, the weak and gentle Frederick William IV., was prevailed upon to promise a national assembly, which ended by offering the imperial German crown to him, thus anticipating history by two decades.

In France the revolution was begun by the Liberal Republicans, but already on the second day the Socialists, who had been quietly growing in numbers during the last decade, seized the power under the leadership of Louis Blanc. Subsequently Liberals and Socialists neutralized each other so that Napoleon III. could make his rapid ascent from the presidency to the imperial throne. In general the revolution, both from a liberal and a national standpoint, was unsuccessful everywhere, and reaction again was temporarily victorious. This led to an unprecedented age of pessimism. The dearest hopes of the youth of Europe had been disappointed. The men who had the noblest and broadest aspirations were discredited or were seeking refuge in foreign lands. No wonder that the age turned to the dark philosophy of Schopenhauer and to the gloomy contemplation of realism in art. Nationalism was still only a popular movement: the governments had not as yet taken up its cause. They were arrayed against it, and for the time being it suffered defeat.

CEMENTING NATIONAL UNITY EVERYWHERE

During the next two decades, however, nationalism became the avowed principle of action in the political world. The growth of nations, the cementing of national unity, the fostering of national life, became the first care of statesmen. Germany, Italy, and Hungary gained political unity and existence, and in the United States the attacks upon nationalism were beaten down in the bloody Civil War.

The Crimean War of 1855, caused by Russian ambition in the Orient, led eventually to the establishment of a number of national states in the Balkans. In 1861 Moldavia and Wallachia united as a nation under the name of Roumania. In 1875 Bosnia revolted against Turkish authority. The consequent unrest brought on the Bulgarian massacres, which led to Russian intervention and the war of 1877. In the peace of San Stefano of 1878 Russia practically decreed the dissolution of the Turkish Empire, but her ambitions were curbed and her policy defeated by the Congress of Berlin. Montenegro, Servia, and Roumania were declared independent states. Bulgaria and East Roumelia were given virtual self-government, with a nominal dependence on Turkey. Bosnia was placed under the protectorate of Austria, while Russia was given some unimportant territory in Asia Minor. Throughout these developments the national principle was constantly invoked, both within these new states and among the diplomats that settled their destiny.

We need only recapitulate the events in central Europe to show that the growth of nationalism was the matter about which everything turned at this time. In Hungary the ancient constitution had been abolished in 1849, the Austrian government having been

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supported by Russian intervention in the arduous task of suppressing the patriotic revolt; but after the Austro-Prussian War in 1867 Hungary became an independent kingdom with a completely guaranteed constitution. The *dénouement* of the German drama of nationalism was as rapid as it was unexpected. In 1864 Austria and Prussia had fought side by side against Denmark for the duchy of Schleswig-Holstein; but in 1866 the strong Prussian national state turned against the old enemy of nationalism, defeated the armies of Austria, and forced that state out of the German confederation, in which it had been the reactionary element. The presidency of the North German Confederation was now united with the crown of Prussia. It needed only the war of 1870 against the hereditary enemy of Germany to bring into strong relief the new national patriotism, and to unite the North German states in a national empire.

In Italy nationalism found sustenance and nourished its flame in opposition to the dominion of the stranger; but it was also the assistance of the stranger that aided her in vindicating her independence. In 1859 Napoleon III. assisted the monarchy of Sardinia in gaining Lombardy, and caused himself to be remunerated by the two provinces of Savoy and Nice. The following year Garibaldi undertook his patriotic expedition into Sicily and Neapolitan territory, leading to the annexation of these as well as the Papal States and the formation of the kingdom of Italy with Florence as its capital in 1861. In 1866 Italy, as the ally of Prussia, though defeated by land and sea, gained Venice and obtained recognition as the sixth of the great European powers. The work was completed in 1871, when the French garrison left Rome and the Eternal City became the capital of Italy. In all these countries the struggle was bloody, but nowhere more tragic than in the United States, where it took a terrible war of four years to settle the supremacy of the national idea.

While the idea of nationalism was bringing long-separated populations together into political union and moulding the outward form of states, the force of liberalism was potent in their inner life. This is a broad term, and covers many shades of political theory, from an aristocratic exclusiveness to a broad and progressive democracy. But all these tendencies are the outgrowth of the French Revolution, and all more or less conform to a certain type of theory which we may call the classic liberalism. Its distinctive feature is the limitation of state power, the idea of *laissez faire*. It seeks political virtue in governmental machinery, in parliaments, in the extension of the suffrage, in opposition to purely hereditary rights. It lays special stress on the organs of public opinion, and has an optimistic belief in the power of reason and rational discussion in political life.

THE RISE OF LIBERAL PARTIES

Even Russia could not escape the influence of these ideas, which were potent in bringing about the liberation of the serfs in 1863, and the encouragement of self-government in the *mir*. In Greece a liberal constitution was promulgated as early as 1844. Austria, after the darkness of reaction which followed the revolution of 1848, adopted a liberal constitution in 1861, and totally reorganized her government in 1867. The Italian monarchy and the house of Savoy have been animated with liberal principles from the first. Although in France all political life was stifled during the earlier years of the Empire, still later in the sixties, especially just before the Franco-Prussian War, a liberal policy had again been adopted. The nationalists of Germany, like Bismarck, the statesman, and Treitschke, the historian, always insisted that liberal government was impossible as long as the many particularistic states of Germany were suffered to continue, and that for the establishment of a liberal government national unity was essential. Bismarck, however, placed nationalism first, and when, as in his struggle with the parliament in the sixties, its needs conflicted with liberal principles, the latter had to give way.

England was during this period the country of liberalism *par excellence*. Having established her national existence and unity centuries before, she could concentrate her whole attention on the rational ordering of her domestic affairs, and the serene reign of liberalism, of which John Bright and Gladstone are the leading spirits, was not obscured for a long time by any irruptions of nationalist propaganda. The thought of the age was given to structural reform, to extension of the

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suffrage, disestablishment, change of the constitutional relations between Ireland and England, and a reformation of the House of Lords.

THE NEW POLICY OF EXPANSION

During this whole period, in England as well as on the continent, colonies were undervalued. So intense was the struggle for the recognition of nationalism on the continent, so deeply were the English statesmen interested in questions of domestic polity and liberal reform, that no attention and energy remained to be expended on distant possessions. The liberal idea of self-government postulated that colonies should be made independent as soon as possible. The example of the United States seemed to indicate that this would be the natural course of development. The chief duty of the mother country was therefore to prepare her dependencies for the inevitable separation, and not to forfeit their good graces by a harsh and imperious dominion. Where trade was universally free, where men were animated by the peaceful sentiments of an industrial age, political empire seemed of little importance. All the great leaders of the liberal party up to the seventies discouraged expenditure for the colonies, and seemed to regard the impending separation as a matter of course; while even Disraeli spoke of the colonies as a mere burden, as "a millstone around our neck."

With the seventies a great change began to come over the political world. The national element in politics, now fully recognized and established in power, superseded the older liberalism. Structural ideas of politics grew uninteresting and unimportant. Effort and attention were concentrated on the development of national force without and within, and on the solution of social questions by legislation. Men no longer asked how the government was to be composed, but how was it to be used for the accomplishment of the various national purposes. As a source of national strength, attention was soon directed to colonies. Great Britain recognized their value, and the continental nations looked longingly and jealously at her magnificent empire. There began a race for territorial acquisition which seems to have come to a climax in our own day. The accompanying table will show how rapidly the imperial domains have expanded in the last thirty years: —

AREA IN SQUARE MILES OF THE EXTRA EUROPEAN POSSESSIONS OF EUROPEAN POWERS

Name of Country	Year 1765	Year 1800	Year 1830	Year 1870	Year 1900
Great Britain .	1,510,329	1,042,595	4,765,853	7,906,261	12,151,000
France	1.056,726	1,056,726	648,905	784,125	3,638,755
Germany . . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	. . .	1,023,840
Russia	5,018,127	5,018,127	5,106,724	5,895,028	6,438.682

AREA OF THE UNITED STATES AND POSSESSIONS

Year 1800	Year 1850	Year 1870	Year 1900
815,244	3,057,407	3,602,990	3,768,521

The purpose of British colonial policy is not merely to acquire new territory, but to bind together the different parts of the empire by the firmest ties, both physical and ideal. Thus a vast railroad is planned from Cairo to India as an industrial backbone to the British empire in Africa and Asia, and the integrity of this connection was one of the prime motives that led to the recent Boer War. In other parts of the world, — in Canada and Australia, — the bonds of racial affinity are used for purposes of imperial federation. France has been animated with a feverish desire to accumulate territory in order to conceal her inner decay by the outward splendor and extent of her possessions. Germany, on the other hand, makes imperialism the agent of the expansion of her commerce, seeking chiefly for *points d'appui* which will assure for her the safety of trade routes.

Russia and the United States show a strange parallel of development. Up to very recent times they acquired new territories for their expanding population. They conquered nature, and from icy Siberia and the plains that stretch towards the Rocky Mountains they brought forth wealth and created well-being for millions. Now their manner of expansion has changed. The United States has come into possession of territory which can never be permanently settled by her citizens, while the empire of the north seems desirous to change her ancient character as conqueror over the forces of nature to that of conqueror of men.

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It is not here suitable to enter more fully into the consequences to politics and civilization of these later developments. To many they contain the foreboding of a great struggle for world supremacy. But it must be said that so far the idea of world-empire cannot be considered a part of practical politics. The great powers are at present struggling not for supremacy, but for their fair share in the wealth and territory of the globe, in the influence that moulds the destiny of humanity.

Just now, however, at the meeting of two centuries, in the Orient there looms up with portentous significance the problem of China, and it may perhaps be said without exaggeration that the fate of mankind is closely interwoven with that of the Chinese empire at the present time. Should any one power gain the absolute ascendency in the far Orient, which on account of its resources and the aptitudes of its inhabitants is bound to become the centre of industry for the future, such an outcome would be fraught with the gravest dangers for humanity. The balance which enables several nations to develop their individuality side by side would be destroyed, and we should be brought one long step nearer to the condition of world-uniformity where all national characteristics are suppressed, or become indistinguishable in a common type. But we need not deal with these possibilities. So far the temper among the nations, though they are engaged in a fierce competition, is still one of mutual respect and forbearance, and there certainly is work for all the civilized powers in the regeneration of the oldest parts of the world and the civilization of its barbarous regions.

APPRAISALS OF NEW BOOKS

[An effort is made in these appraisals to give the reader the best practical guide in forming a judgment of new books that can be made while they are new. These descriptions and judgments are made after a thorough reading of the books, in some cases by two persons.]

FICTION

TOMMY AND GRIZEL. By J. M. Barrie. Illustrated by Bernard Partridge. 509 pp. $1.50. (Scribner.) A novel to be liked, or resented, as you will, but not to be ignored. When "Sentimental Tommy" closed with two remarkable children just entering upon maturity, this sequel was foreshadowed. The scenes are in London and in Thrums; but the most critical incident happens on the Continent. The pith of it is the interior life of emotion in two characters,—a woman with the straightforward, independent spirit of a man, but with a genius for loving, and a chameleon-like man. This emotional relationship implies tragedy. But sweeter tragedy has seldom been written. Mr. Barrie's satisfying style and delicate humor throw rosy gleams even in the darkest places of the story.

ELEANOR. By Mrs. Humphry Ward. Frontispiece by Albert Sterner. 627 pp. $1.50. (Harper.) Mrs. Ward's best book, not only for its style, but because it deals with simple human emotions at last (in spite of the insufferable cad in it) rather than with a man's theological life, or a woman's philanthropic ambitions. The chief characters are an over-cultivated, restless Englishman, the high-bred Eleanor, his cousin, a simple, strong American girl—all modern and all unusual. Mrs. Ward goes straight back to human nature under the artificiality called "culture." It is a story of love and jealousy and of envy, and finally of "purifying" affection. The American girl is one of the best portraits of our countrywoman in fiction. The background is modern Italy, torn between Church and State. As in "Helbeck of Bannisdale," the author's attitude is one of well-bred, highly intelligent hostility to Roman Catholicism.

LORD JIM. By Joseph Conrad. 392 pp. $1.50. (Doubleday, Page.) A remarkable study of a man (made with all Mr. Conrad's subtlety), brave to recklessness as a rule, strong, lovable, full of a sense of duty, but with some hidden quicksand of cowardice, which at two great crises of his life engulfs him. It is told with remarkable literary art, and with a feeling for the romance of the unknown islands of Malaysia, which wraps it in a veil of mystery and illusion.

THE LAST REFUGE. By Henry B. Fuller. 284 pp. $1.50. (Houghton, Mifflin.) The longing of men for perfect happiness is set forth in a semi-allegorical form. The characters are shadowy, and the interest of the story is irregular; but its charm is in the author's loving description of Roman and Sicilian scenery. It is a return to the manner of the author's first book, "The Chevalier of Pensieri-Vani."

ON THE WING OF OCCASIONS. By Joel Chandler

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Harris. 310 pp. $1.50. (Doubleday, Page.) The implied nonchalance of the title gives little hint of the solidity of these five Southern stories of the Civil War. In the longest one, "The Kidnapping of President Lincoln," there is a congenial portrait of Lincoln, humorous, earnest, pathetic. In these stories Mr. Harris adds a new character to his creations — Mr. Billy Sanders, a humorous, shrewd, rural Georgian philosopher. Well told, clear, and strong.

EBEN HOLDEN. By Irving Bacheller. 432 pp. $1.50. (Lothrop.) Of a sort with "David Harum," with an originality and freshness of its own. A story of simple folk, pioneer farmers of northern New York long before the war. The hero is a type, now fast disappearing, who knew the forests and simple country life, and had a mellow knowledge of human nature. A wholesome book of a genuine human quality.

IN THE PALACE OF THE KING. By F. Marion Crawford. Illustrated. 367 pp. $1.50. (Macmillan.) The pitch of enchantment is reached in this tale of one night's happenings in the palace of King Philip II. of Spain; full of the old-fashioned mystery, murder, love, intrigue; everybody except the villain lives happily ever after. The book opens the door for a complete escape into romance.

DR. NORTH AND HIS FRIENDS. By Dr. Weir Mitchell. 499 pp. $1.50. (Century.) A kind of informal autobiography with the atmosphere of the salon, in which clever, well-bred people, clearly Dr. Mitchell's friends, meet and talk about everything in the universe in the nonchalant, brilliant, somewhat exasperating modern fashion. There is a love story and a slight plot, but it is hardly a novel. It is a series of bright conversations somewhat too anecdotal and too obviously clever to rest the reader. It pricks him often, as if to remind him that he is in a remarkably clever company.

THE HOSTS OF THE LORD. By Flora Annie Steel. 344 pp. $1.50. (Macmillan.) A novel of India, as the author's other stories are, but this time India of to-day. It blends realistic scenes and characters with a religious idealism. Certain persons in this book have their own little private pathways to holiness, and a sensitiveness to the Unseen delicately envelops the tale in the hues of spiritual romance.

ALICE OF OLD VINCENNES. By Maurice Thompson. Illustrated by F. C. Yohn. 419 pp. $1.50. (Bowen-Merrill.) A historical romance, laid in and near the Indiana town of Vincennes during the campaign of George Rogers Clark in the American Revolution. The characters all love and fight mightily; a cheerful book of action, of little literary art and no permanent value, but a rattling story for a passing day.

THE WORLDLINGS. By Leonard Merrick. 328 pp. $1.50. (Doubleday, Page.) A disagreeable and sordid subject. Mr. Merrick is a craftsman of no little skill, but his art is hardly great enough to carry a trite and grimy plot — apparently modelled on the Ticheborne Case.

A PRISONER IN BUFF. By Everett T. Tomlinson. Illustrated. 267 pp. $1.25. (The Griffith & Rowland Press.) A story of the American Revolution for young readers. The scenes are in New York, in Philadelphia, and on Long Island; animated and straightforward, worthy of the other work of the author, who has won great success in this useful field.

THE EAGLE'S HEART. By Hamlin Garland. 369 pp. $1.50. (Appleton.) An exciting succession of frontier adventures on the plains of the West; with the atmosphere of primitive outdoor living; a clear character sketch, and a pleasant love story.

DEVIL TALES. By Virginia Frazer Boyle. Illustrated by A. B. Frost. 211 pp. $1.50. (Harpers.) Clever short stories of the superstitions of old Southern plantations, true to the subject and straight out of life.

CUNNING MURRELL. By Arthur Morrison. 288 pp. $1.50. (Doubleday, Page.) Mr. Morrison has (let us thank him) forsaken his depressing slums. Cunning Murrell lived in a London suburb fifty years ago, when witchcraft was still a thing of daily life; and this wise man and witch-finder is the centre of a tale, inoffensive and mildly entertaining.

THE LANE THAT HAD NO TURNING. By Gilbert Parker. 359 pp. $1.50. (Doubleday, Page.) Twenty-six short stories, chiefly of the French-Canadian village of Pontiac. They have the directness of good stories with a romantic tinge, and a keen use of the religious side of these plain people's character. Several of them are sharply dramatic.

A WOMAN OF YESTERDAY. By Caroline A. Mason. 300 pp. $1.50. (Doubleday, Page.) A novel of contemporaneous religious life in the United States. The devout heroine, a girl of an uncommonly strong personality, prepares herself, in great poverty and self-denial, for the life of a missionary, with the utmost zeal. The story is of her religious development as she comes to take a wider and more liberal view of the religious life; well conceived, and well executed in a reverent spirit; and an absorbing story.

THE HOUSE BEHIND THE CEDARS. By Charles W. Chesnutt. 294 pp. $1.50. (Houghton, Mifflin.) A dramatic story of the color-line in Southern

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life. The heroine, an octoroon who "passes for white," almost succeeds, but her failure is one of the most tragic things in recent fiction. A well-constructed and well-written story of great directness and power.

IN HOSTILE RED. A Romance of the Monmouth Campaign. By J. A. Altsheler. 300 pp. $1.50. (Doubleday, Page.) An historical romance, the stirring action of which takes place in Philadelphia and New Jersey; full of the most daring adventure; a Revolutionary romance of great spirit.

A PRINCESS OF ARCADY. By Arthur Henry. 300 pp. $1.50. (Doubleday, Page.) A delicately-wrought, almost shadowy romance, the pleasant idyllic story being subordinate in interest to the imaginative quality and the attractive style; a welcome relief from swashbuckler fiction.

HISTORY, TRAVEL, AND BIOGRAPHY

OLIVER CROMWELL. By John Morley, M. P. Fully illustrated with carefully authenticated portraits in public and private galleries, and with reproductions of contemporaneous prints in the British Museum and the University of Oxford. (The Century Company.) 472 pp. $3.50. A noble book, briefer and more easily readable than Gardiner's great history; the best popular Cromwell yet written.

PAUL JONES, FOUNDER OF THE AMERICAN NAVY. A history. By Augustus C. Buell. 2 vols., illustrated, 661 pp. $3.00. (Scribner.) The first worthy biography of Jones; frank, spirited, well written, from original sources; an important and commendable book.

WITH BOTH ARMIES IN SOUTH AFRICA. By Richard Harding Davis. Illustrated. 237 pp. $1.50. (Scribner.) Articles from *Scribner's Magazine*, written from South Africa during the war; graphic and interesting; the best war correspondent's book from South Africa; strongly pro-Boer.

THEODORE PARKER, PREACHER AND REFORMER. By John White Chadwick. 421 pp. Portrait and index. $2.00. (Houghton, Mifflin.) An appreciative, condensed biography and appraisal, written with sympathy and enthusiasm.

THE LIFE OF HENRY GEORGE. By Henry George, Jr. 634 pp. Library edition, $2.50; popular edition, $1.50. (Doubleday, Page.) A well-proportioned and clearly written, authorized biography by the son of the subject, who was for many years the confidential companion of his father. A satisfactory piece of work.

THE MONITOR AND THE NAVY UNDER STEAM. By Frank M. Bennett, Lieutenant, U. S. N. 369 pp. $1.50. (Houghton, Mifflin.) A popular book from an engineer's point of view, by the author of a larger and technical history of the navy; it traces the changes made by steam and steel in marine engineering, and the evolution of the battleship, with a brief naval history from the introduction of steam to the present; with many illustrations, and an index; the best brief and general book on the subject, but with rather too much emphasis on the machine, and too little on the man.

THE BOERS IN WAR. By Howard C. Hillegas. Illustrated. 300 pp. $1.50. (Appleton.) The army, the country, and the people of the Transvaal as they were before the British occupation of Pretoria; pro-Boer in its sympathies; clearly written.

THE STORY OF THE SOLDIER. By Brevet Brigadier-General George A. Forsyth, U. S. A. (retired) (in the Story of the West Series). 389 pp. $1.50. (Appleton.) A short history, by a general officer of wide experience, of the regular army from its inception to 1876, with special reference to its service against the Indian tribes of the West; a spirited general narrative; many illustrations and a good index.

A CENTURY OF AMERICAN DIPLOMACY. By John W. Foster, ex-Secretary of State. 497 pp. $3.50. (Houghton, Mifflin.) A course of university lectures. Period: The Revolution to Grant's presidency, with the Monroe Doctrine to date; by an author of wide diplomatic experience. Elementary; clear in statement; a good outline, not requiring previous knowledge.

THE AMERICAN SLAVE TRADE. An Account of Its Origin, Growth, and Suppression. By John R. Spears. Illustrated by Walter Appleton Clark. 232 pp. $2.50. (Scribner.) A side product of the author's history of our navy; a popular book, historical and descriptive, chiefly descriptive; as picturesque as it is gruesome. Parts of the book appeared in *Scribner's Magazine*.

MEMOIRS OF COUNTESS POTOCKA. Edited by Casimir Stryienski. Translated by Lionel Strachey. 253 pp. $3.50. (Doubleday, Page.) The Countess tells with naïveté and charm stories of many famous personages, Polish, French, and Russian, at the beginning of the century. But perhaps her most successful anecdote is autobiographical, relating how after the usual *mariage de convenance* she tried to pique her husband into showing more affection by writing a love-letter to herself.

THOMAS JEFFERSON: HIS LIFE AND WRITINGS. By S. E. Forman. 476 pp. $3. (Bowen-Merrill.) A series of selections from the state papers and private correspondence of Jefferson, arranged in alphabetical order and prefaced by a brief biography. Useful for easy reference.

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THE ROSSETTIS: DANTE GABRIEL AND CHRISTINA. By Elizabeth Luther Cary. With 27 illustrations in photogravure and some other illustrations. 310 pp. $3.75. (Putnam.) Out of twelve chapters Rossetti receives ten, his sister two. An interpretative criticism. Original, and pleasantly written; and it presents the subject from a somewhat new angle.

THE UNITED STATES IN THE ORIENT. By Charles A. Conant. 237 pp. $1.25. (Houghton, Mifflin.) Essays from various periodicals touching economic aspects of our relations with the Far East. The argument is that since our productive greatly exceeds our consumptive capacity, only by securing and maintaining adequate markets abroad can we find an outlet for our over-product and for our capital. Thoughtful and clear.

A WOMAN TENDERFOOT. By Grace Gallatin Seton-Thompson. Illustrated by Ernest Seton-Thompson, F. D. Ashe, and from sketches and photographs. 361 pp. $2.00. (Doubleday, Page.) This volume presents the woman of to-day at perhaps her greatest distance from her sisters of former generations. With her husband (artist, author, and friend of all the animal world) she made many adventurous trips through the Rockies; and she has told her adventures and set forth her experiences and made many practical suggestions for those who would follow her example; interesting, in many places thrilling; a well-bred style.

THROUGH THE FIRST ANTARCTIC NIGHT. A Narrative of the Voyage of the *Belgica* among Newly Discovered Lands and over an Unknown Sea about the South Pole. With four colored plates, and over one hundred black and white illustrations; appendix of scientific results. 478 pp. $5.00. (Doubleday, Page.) A chronicle of the *Belgica* Expedition of 1898–1899, important as the first addition made in our time to Antarctic literature. The *Belgica* party gathered a mass of entirely new material, and the book has the interest of scientific discovery as well as of adventures and perils, a good account of which plentifully besprinkle its pages.

THE SALT-BOX HOUSE. Eighteenth-century life in a New England hill town. By Jane de Forest Shelton. 302 pp. $1.50. (Baker & Taylor.) A pleasant record of a well-to-do family's home-life in Stratford, Connecticut; of historical value as an explanation of obsolete customs, house furnishings, pleasures, and the like; conveying a last-century atmosphere, in an interesting way.

ARABIA: THE CRADLE OF ISLAM. Studies in the Geography, People, and Politics of the Peninsula, with an Account of Islam and Mission-work. By Rev. S. M. Zwemer, F.R.G.S., with an introduction by Rev. James S. Dennis, D.D. 434 pp. $2.00. (Revell.) Written to call attention to Arabia and the need of mission-work for the Arabs. A description of the peninsula and of its people, with maps; from a missionary point of view.

A LIFE OF FRANCIS PARKMAN. By Charles Haight Farnham. 394 pp. $2.50. (Little, Brown.) Departing from a strict biographical plan, the author has written a biographical introduction, then a study of his subject in three parts — Parkman's preparation, Parkman as seen in his works, and his moral growth. An important book and the authorized life, written with all material given by the family and the friends of the historian.

HISTORIC TOWNS OF THE SOUTHERN STATES. Edited by Lyman P. Powell. Illustrated. 604 pp. $3.50. (Putnam.) An example of industrious book-making, with its accounts, historical and descriptive, of the older Southern cities east of the Mississippi. The illustrations are profuse. Of uneven value, but of much local and some historical interest.

LITERARY FRIENDS AND ACQUAINTANCES. A Personal Retrospect of American Authorship. By W. D. Howells. Illustrated with many pictures. 288 pp. (Harper.) Eight reminiscent chapters (1860 to 1890), including "Literary Boston as I Knew It," "Oliver Wendell Holmes," "Studies in Lowell," and "The White Mr. Longfellow," which is by far the best and the most intimately appreciative portrait of Longfellow. Mr. Howells has known, and the reader meets in this book, almost every American who has had to do with literature these forty years; and it is the best book of American literary reminiscences since Fields's "Yesterdays with Authors."

NEWEST ENGLAND. Notes of a Democratic Traveller in New Zealand, with some Australian Comparisons. By Henry Demarest Lloyd. 377 pp. $2.50. (Doubleday, Page.) The best account of the extensions of democracy in Australasia, written after a study, in Australia and New Zealand, of the public ownership of railroads, the public administrator, the Australian land-tax system, old-age pensions, compulsory arbitration, and the other extensions of governmental functions; written with approval of these extensions of state activity, even with an apostolic enthusiasm; earnest, clear, interesting.

OLIVER CROMWELL. By Theodore Roosevelt. Illustrated. 260 pp. $2.00. (Scribner.) A very straightforward and vigorous book, attractive less for its literary quality than for its direct grip on the larger aspects of the subject, but its literary quality has the great merit of directness; the best American life of Cromwell, and it has a distinctly American point of view.

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THE NORTH AMERICANS OF YESTERDAY. A comparative study of North American Indian Life, Customs, and Products, on the Theory of the Ethnic Unity of the Race. By Frederick S. Dellenbaugh; with more than 350 illustrations, pp. 100. (Putnam.) The work of an artist who has been a field-student of Indian life, in the service of the Bureau of Ethnology, and who writes, therefore, with a full knowledge of the vast store of information gathered by the government. The basis of this instructive book was a series of eight lectures delivered six years ago before the Lowell Institute in Boston.

POLITICAL PARTIES IN THE UNITED STATES. 1846–1861. By Jesse Macy, A.M., LL.D., Professor of Political Science in Iowa College. pp. 333. $1.25. (Macmillan.) A study of the American party-system; not a handbook, nor a book of reference, but a contribution to our political history, and an instructive contribution. It is a volume in The Citizens' Library of Economics, Politics, and Sociology, edited by Dr. Richard T. Ely.

OTHER BOOKS

THE TRUSTS. By William Miller Collier. 348 pp. $1.25. (Baker & Taylor.) A clear explanation in moderate compass of the consolidation of industry, with particular consideration of its relations to the tariff and territorial expansion. The text of various anti-trust laws is given in appendices.

EXPANSION UNDER NEW WORLD CONDITIONS. By Josiah Strong. 310 pp. $1.00. (Baker & Taylor.) The expansion of the United States as affected by present-day industrial and economical conditions; the argument is that America's future depends upon keeping open and unrestricted the markets of the Far East; a practical book after the general manner of the author's "Our Country."

SHORT STORY WRITING. A Practical Treatise on the Art of the Short Story. By Charles Raymond Barrett, Ph.B. 257 pp. $1.00. (Baker & Taylor.) A shrewd, somewhat businesslike discussion of the requirements of the short story — of subjects, plots, characters, beginnings, endings, style, and the market. Rather mechanical than artistic in tone, but of practical craft-value.

THE HISTORY OF THE DEVIL, and the Idea of Evil from the earliest times to the present day. By Dr. Paul Carus. 496 pp. 311 illustrations. $6.00. (Open Court Publishing Co.) It covers the whole history of devil worship; a book of much curious erudition; with many valuable illustrations from old German woodcuts, Oriental carvings, and other sources.

SCHOOL SANITATION AND DECORATION. A practical study of health and beauty in their relations to the Public Schools. By Severance Burrage, B.S., Professor of Sanitary Engineering in Purdue University, and Henry Turner Bailey, State Supervisor of Drawing, Massachusetts. 191 pp. $1.50. (Heath.) A practical explanation of the needs of the modern schoolroom from the standpoints of healthfulness and beauty. Illustrated with photographs of interiors and reproductions of famous works of art suitable for decoration; with specimens of artistic work done by the school children.

CHINA'S ONLY HOPE. An appeal by her greatest viceroy, Chang Chih Tung, Viceroy of Liang Hu, with endorsement by the present Emperor Kwang Su. Translated from the Chinese by the Rev. S. I. Woodbridge; introduction by Rev. Griffeth John, D.D. Illustrated. 151 pp. 75 cents. (Revell.) A remarkable book, written by an enlightened and progressive Chinaman for his own countrymen. It has been the gospel of the Chinese reform party. It discusses the moral ideals necessary to regenerate the nation, and the methods of introducing them.

PARIS OF TO-DAY. By Richard Whiteing, with pictures by André Castaigne. 249 pp. (Century Co.) Diverting and well-written magazine articles made into a holiday book, with many large pictures. Mr. Whiteing is, of course, a better writer than most makers of descriptive magazine literature.

TUSKEEGEE. Its Story and Its Work. By Max Bennett Thrasher, with an introduction by Booker T. Washington. Illustrated. 204 pp. (Small, Maynard.) Both historical and descriptive; an enthusiastic but judicious explanation of the work done at this revolutionary institution for the training of the negro, by a writer who has studied the school and travelled much with Mr. Washington throughout the South.

SHADOWINGS. By Lafcadio Hearn, Lecturer on English Literature in Imperial University, Tōkyō, Japan. 268 pp. $2.00. (Little, Brown.) Three groups of short, dreamy essays: (1) Stories from Strange Books, (2) Japanese Studies, and (3) Fantasies, most of which are interpretations of Japanese life and thought. They have the charm of the author's similar preceding books.

MORE FAMOUS HOMES OF GREAT BRITAIN, AND THEIR STORIES. Edited by H. H. Malan. Compton, Wynyates, Levens Hall, Haworth Castle, Cotehele, Longleat, Glamis, Mount Edgcumbe, Blickling Hall, Rufford Abbey, Wilton House, Inverary, Knole. Illustrated. 337 pp. $7.50. (Putnam.) A sumptuous volume, with many beautiful illustrations and an intelligent text, much of it by the owners of the houses; interesting both in detailed presentation of fine examples of English architecture and in historical description.

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THE MONTH'S MOST POPULAR BOOKS

THERE are two measures of a book's popularity,—the number of copies that are sold, and the demand for it at the free public libraries. The two following lists, one obtained from the librarians of representative city libraries, and the other from leading book-dealers, show the popular books from each standpoint, and give as accurately as possible the public favor in which the book is held.

Booksellers in Boston, Philadelphia, Louisville, St. Paul, Indianapolis, San Francisco, and Detroit, and librarians in Springfield, Hartford, Buffalo, Detroit, Chicago, Minneapolis, and Cincinnati, have made reports, each including a list of the twenty books that have been most in demand. These lists have been welded into one, and composite lists made of them. The resultant lists compiled from the reports of last month, follow:—

BOOK-DEALERS' REPORTS

1. The Cardinal's Snuff Box—Harland. (Lane.)
2. Master Christian—Corelli. (Dodd, Mead.)
3. Monsieur Beaucaire—Tarkington. (McClure, Phillips.)
4. Eben Holden—Bacheller. (Lothrop.)
5. The Reign of Law—Allen. (Macmillan.)
6. Elizabeth and her German Garden—Anon. (Macmillan.)
7. The Redemption of David Corson—Goss. (Bowen-Merrill.)
8. Unleavened Bread—Grant. (Scribner.)
9. The Voice of the People—Glasgow. (Doubleday, Page.)
10. China, the Long-lived Empire—Scidmore. (Century.)
11. Tommy and Grizel—Barrie. (Scribner.)
12. The Gentleman from Indiana—Tarkington. (Doubleday, Page.)
13. Billy Baxter's Letters—Kountz. (Weldin.)
14. Wild Animals I Have Known—Seton-Thompson. (Scribner.)
15. Fables in Slang—Ade. (Stone.)
16. Weird Orient—Hiowizi. (Coates.)
17. Hard-pan—Bonner. (Century.)
18. Deacon Bradbury—Dix. (Century.)
19. The Isle of the Winds—Crockett. (Doubleday, Page.)
20. Home Folks—Riley. (Bowen-Merrill.)
21. A Friend of Cæsar—Davis. (Macmillan.)
22. Memoirs of the Countess Potocka—Strachey. (Doubleday, Page.)
23. The Penitentes—How. (Bowen-Merrill.)
24. Love Letters of a Musician—Reed. (Putnam.)
25. The Solitary Summer—Anon. (Macmillan.)
26. Bob, Son of Battle—Ollivant. (Doubleday, Page.)
27. Robert Orange—Hobbes. (Stokes.)
28. America's Economic Supremacy—Adams. (Macmillan.)
29. The Century Book of Gardening—Cook. (Doubleday, Page.)
30. The Expatriates—Bell. (Harper.)

LIBRARIANS' REPORTS

1. The Reign of Law—Allen. (Macmillan.)
2. To Have and to Hold—Johnston. (Houghton, Mifflin.)
3. Janice Meredith—Ford. (Dodd, Mead.)
4. Elizabeth and her German Garden—Anon. (Macmillan.)
5. Unleavened Bread—Grant. (Scribner.)
6. The Gentleman from Indiana—Tarkington. (Doubleday, Page.)
7. When Knighthood was in Flower—Major. (Bowen-Merrill.)
8. Richard Carvel—Churchill. (Macmillan.)
9. The Redemption of David Corson—Goss. (Bowen-Merrill.)
10. David Harum—Westcott. (Appleton.)
11. Wild Animals I Have Known—Seton-Thompson. (Scribner.)
12. Red Pottage—Cholmondely. (Harper.)
13. Eben Holden—Bacheller. (Lothrop.)
14. Phillip Winwood—Stephens. (L. C. Page.)
15. Master Christian—Corelli. (Dodd, Mead.)
16. China, the Long-lived Empire—Scidmore. (Century.)
17. The Solitary Summer—Anon. (Macmillan.)
18. Fisherman's Luck—Van Dyke. (Scribner.)
19. The Letters of R. L. Stevenson—Colvin. (Scribner.)
20. The Voice of the People—Glasgow. (Doubleday, Page.)
21. A Friend of Cæsar—Davis. (Macmillan.)
22. China in Transformation—Colquohoun. (Harper.)
23. The Browning Love Letters. (Harper.)
24. The Break-up of China—Beresford. (Harper.)
25. Life of William Morris—Mackail. (Longmans.)
26. Ben Hur—Wallace. (Harper.)
27. Red Rock—Page. (Scribner.)
28. The Honorable Peter Sterling—Ford. (Holt.)
29. In Connection with the De Willoughby Claim—Burnett. (Scribner.)
30. Sky Pilot—Connor. (Revell.)

Only eleven books are mentioned in both lists; and there is a particular demand for novels that have been dramatized, and for books dealing with China and the Eastern situation.

Five books, "The Reign of Law," "Elizabeth and her German Garden," "The Redemption of David Corson," "The Gentleman from Indiana," and "Unleavened Bread," are among the first twelve in each list. They are, therefore, probably the most widely read books of the month.

Booksellers and librarians were requested to make their reports cover a large list of books, so that they might show the popularity of other sorts of books as well as of novels. The dozen most popular books of any month are likely to be all fiction, and most of them are likely to be novels of merely transitory favor and value. But even a list of thirty contains disappointingly few books of history or biography or of literature. The librarians' list of course contains a few more than the booksellers' list—among them being "Wild Animals I Have Known," "China, the Long-lived Empire," "The Letters of Robert Louis Stevenson," "China in Transformation," "The Browning Love Letters," "The Break-up of China," and "The Life of William Morris."

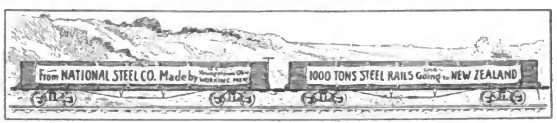
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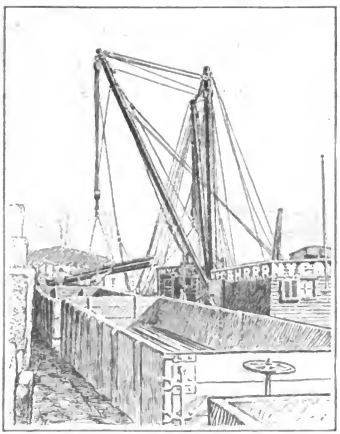
AMONG THE WORLD'S WORKERS

THE ADVANCE OF AMERICAN COMMERCE, SHIP-BUILDING, RAILWAY CONSOLIDATION, FINANCIAL INDEPENDENCE OF EUROPE — THE MOVEMENT OF PRICES — THE GROWTH OF CITIES

Steel and Copper to all Countries

MR. CARNEGIE has made a movement of vast significance to the steel trade. To avoid the freight rates from Pittsburg to the seaboard, the Carnegie Company will ship by water to Europe. In November four British steamers sailed from Conneaut Harbor, each loaded with a thousand tons of steel sent from Pittsburg on the Carnegie Company's own railroad to Lake Erie. They were loaded to fourteen feet draught, the greatest permitted by the Welland Canal. They entered the canal, each towing a barge loaded with fifteen hundred tons of wood pulp. When deep water was reached at Montreal, the route followed being by way of Port Dalhousie, on Lake Ontario, to Kingston and into the St. Lawrence, the wood pulp was loaded on the steamers, which then sailed for Liverpool.





STEEL RAILS ON THEIR WAY FROM YOUNGSTOWN, O., TO NEW ZEALAND.

This experiment is thought to presage the establishment by the Carnegie Company of a regular freight route and the building of its own ships. If successful, it is sure to be followed by most of the other great steel makers in Pennsylvania, Ohio, and the Middle West. The distance from New York to Liverpool is 3425 miles, and from Pittsburg to Liverpool by the Welland Canal 3267 miles. The all-water route will, then, compel a reduction in freight rates by the great trunk lines, and give American steel a still firmer foothold in foreign markets. It would doubtless also hasten the building of a ship canal from the lakes to the ocean along the route recommended by the Deep Water Ways Commission.

The iron and steel trade now commands an economic outlook without precedent. England and Germany are still leading us as exporters of iron and steel of certain classes, but our experience at home in adapting machinery and implements and other forms of steel products to the varied conditions of our vast territory has prepared us to adapt our products to the conditions of climate and the wants of consumers in every part of the world. Throughout the country the steel-making plants are crowded with work, and most of them are unable to fill their orders. Youngstown, Ohio, has lately made a noteworthy shipment of steel rails to New Zealand. Within the last twelve months the Carnegie Company has sent steel rails and structural material to India, Burmah, Persia, Palestine, and Madagascar. During the same period the Westinghouse interests have developed a big trade in air brakes and electrical machinery with continental Europe, Asiatic Russia, China, Japan, India, Corea, Egypt, Turkey, and Australia;

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while the Pressed Steel Car Company has sent its cars to Egypt, France, Natal, Cape Colony, Japan, China, England, and Spain; and the Standard Underground Cable Company has despatched tons of its product to Patagonia, Siam, Japan, Chile, Ecuador, and the Argentine Republic.

$16,000,000 IN COPPER DIVIDENDS

The same cheering reports of growth and activity come from the several centres of the copper industry. During the first nine months of the current year the four leading copper companies of the country paid upward of $16,000,000 in dividends, and the demand for this metal for manufacturing consumption promises to continue on an enormous scale for a practically indefinite period. Part of this is due to increased consumption by American brass and copper manufacturers, but England, France, and Germany have also been heavy purchasers. Since electrical developments will undoubtedly assume greater importance throughout Europe, the foreign demand for copper promises to increase. America seems to have a ready and assured market for all the copper it can produce for years to come; and so long as legitimate consumption keeps such close pace with production, values will continue to respond to the buoyant influences of such truly magnificent trade demands as at present exist for copper.

PROSPERITY OF A COPPER COUNTY

What these things mean to the mine worker as well as to the mine owner is shown by the annual census of Houghton County, Michigan, where many of the big copper veins are. The number of men employed in the mines and mills of that county has nearly doubled in the short space of four years; and, from present indications, twenty thousand men will be employed before another half decade. In addition to the mines and mills, the smelters furnish employment to large numbers, the labor force of the railroads is twice as large as it was a few years ago, and thousands of men are employed by the various contractors. Scores of new business structures are going up in the chief towns; over a thousand new dwellings have been built during the present year, and a belt trolley line, now nearing completion, will give rapid transit between the principal mining, milling, and commercial centres of the county.

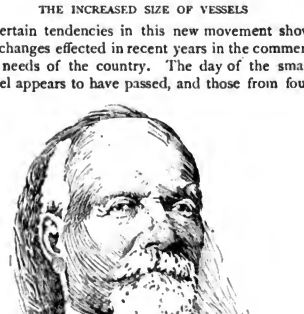
The Doubling of Our Ship-building

THE deep-water craft built in American yards in 1900, if placed end to end, would make a fleet fifteen miles long. The ship-building capacity of the country has been doubled within the past two years, and yet all the yards, with an exception or two, have a large amount of work in progress and in sight, and cannot book further orders for months to come.

Proofs that the United States is again to take first rank as a ship-building and ship-owning nation multiply on every hand. Since July, 1899, many plants long closed have been reopened, and ten companies have proposed the establishment of new plants to cost from $500,000 to $6,000,000 each. Among the plants lately established or much enlarged are that at Newport News, representing an investment of $12,000,000; the new plant at Camden, Maine, which will cost $6,000,000; the Cramp Works, and the Union Works at San Francisco; the Sparrow's Point yard, near Baltimore — started ten years ago, and recently equipped with new machinery; the adaptation of the works at Bath, Maine, to the building of steel vessels; the new yard at New London, Connecticut, where vessels of the largest class are to be constructed; and the new yard at Richmond, Virginia. In all these the equipment is of the first class, and generous use has been made of labor-saving appliances.

THE INCREASED SIZE OF VESSELS

Certain tendencies in this new movement show the changes effected in recent years in the commercial needs of the country. The day of the small vessel appears to have passed, and those from four



H. M. BEAN, BUILDER OF THE *GEORGE W. WELLS*.

thousand tons upward are now most in demand. The ship-builders of New England have led the way in the construction of sailing vessels of increased size; and at the yard of H. M. Bean, in Cam-

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den, Maine, the finishing touches are now being given to a six-masted schooner, the first of its kind. This vessel is 330 feet in length, 48 feet beam, 22 feet depth of hold, and will carry 5500 tons of



THE *GEORGE W. WELLS*, FIRST SIX-MASTED SCHOONER EVER BUILT.

cargo. Her lower masts are each 116 feet long, and her topmasts each 58 feet in length. Wire rigging will be used exclusively, and four roomy houses are provided on deck, while the vessel will be lighted throughout with electricity and heated by steam.

Early in October a still larger six-masted schooner was launched at the yard of Percy & Small, in Bath, Maine; and that more of these mammoth craft will be built in the near future may be inferred from the fact that a vessel of large size can be handled with the same number of men as are required for one of half the tonnage, and its earning capacity is thereby materially increased.

GOVERNMENT AID TO SHIPPING

"There is now an opportunity," said Lewis Nixon, the ship-builder, to THE WORLD'S WORK, "which may not occur again in generations for us to enter with a fair show of success into a competition for foreign trade upon the ocean; but it cannot be expected that American boats can jump into this trade when good will and connections have already been established by other countries. Hence some measure of encouragement to ship-builders and owners is absolutely necessary, and should be granted without delay by Congress." Mr. Nixon continued: —

"I am a believer in removing the tariff upon the products of any well-established industry; the fact remains that this country is upon a protection basis. This being the case the only two industries of ship-building and ship-owning which are not protected should at least receive the same encouragement as other industries.

"I believe that, if the two great parties would join hand in hand in the building up of our merchant marine, just as they did in the case of our navy, the same gratifying results would be obtained in connection with the upbuilding of our foreign fleet as were obtained in connection with the rebuilding of the navy. It is not a political question at all except as it is made so by those who seek partisan capital in everything that is done. From the Democratic standpoint I believe that more has been accomplished by men who were avowedly Democrats than by men who were or are Republicans.

"On this point the student of history will find that the first President to recommend legislation providing subsidies for American shipping was James K. Polk. The first great speech ever made in Congress in favor of subsidies to American ships was delivered by William Polk, of Tennessee, brother of the President and Democratic leader of the House. The first subsidy legislation for the benefit of American ships, those of the Collins line, was passed by a Democratic majority in Congress and approved by a Democratic President. Only one of our Presidents has ever sent to Congress a message recommending a repeal of the navigation laws written by Jefferson. That President was Grant, and he withdrew the message after hearing the speech of John Kelly against such repeal.

"I cite these facts to show that legislation looking to the upbuilding of our commerce upon the sea is not, and can not, be confined to any one party. Increasing need and resolve that we shall be no longer tributary to the nations which do our carrying are sure in time to make us, despite all obstructions, the greatest ship-building and ship-owning nation. History will repeat itself, and we shall again build the ships of the world, as we did when we produced the wooden fleets which gave us our supremacy upon the ocean. But a wisely framed subsidy law will make this a matter of years instead of decades."

Increasing Railway Consolidations

LIGHT on present tendencies in railway management is afforded by Mr. Paul Morton, second vice-president of the Santa Fé system, and by Mr. Frank J. Bramhall, of the Michigan Southern Railway, who have kindly furnished brief expressions of opinion for publication in THE WORLD'S WORK. Mr. Morton writes: —

"The present trend in railway management is towards unification of ownership. The Interstate Commerce Act prevents discrimination between individuals or between communities, and prohibits pooling or combination of any kind; and this is backed up by the Sherman Anti-Trust Law. On the other hand, competition in the railway world, which is very keen, naturally breeds discrimination between individuals, as well as between communities and localities, and the only thing that will prevent it is combination or pools. The law says this shall not be, and the logical result will be that competition will continue to force consolidation in some form or another. Personally, I incline to the opinion that this is, perhaps, the best thing that can happen. However, as soon as the people find that our railroads are all owned by one body of capitalists, there will be a loud cry for government ownership, although the laws passed by Congress itself are hurrying such concentration of ownership.

"The Pacific coast is to be one of the deciding factors in the next great epoch of the railway business. Regardless of the result of the trouble in China, shipping on the Pacific Ocean is going to multiply and increase in magnitude every year, with consequent profit to our transcontinental lines. There is sure to be a great development in the Orient when American ingenuity becomes thoroughly implanted, as it is bound to do, in that section of the world."

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Mr. Bramhall takes much the same view as Mr. Morton. He writes: —

"Probably the most marked tendency on the part of the railroads of the present day is that toward concentration and consolidation. This is a result of two causes: the one a natural tendency found in all commercial lines of business, in which the larger seeks to absorb the smaller. This has existed ever since the first lines were built, as illustrated by the consolidation of the three original lines from Boston to the Hudson River under the new title of the Boston & Albany, and the consolidation of the five original lines which now form the main line of the New York Central. The second and more recent stimulus in this direction is found in the decisions of the United States courts prohibiting pooling, and, indeed, any practical agreement among the different lines for the maintenance of rates. In order to avoid, therefore, demoralization of freight and passenger rates, resulting in serious loss to the roads and no real benefit to the public, it became necessary for the financial interests to combine by some form of actual consolidation. So we see the large systems of the Pennsylvania, the New York Central, the New York, New Haven & Hartford, and the Boston & Maine, constantly extending by absorption, not of competing, but of connecting lines.

"The same principle is illustrated by the western lines, but in less degree, as the scope for extension permits the building of new lines; and we see the extension of westward lines toward the Pacific coast, drawn by the strong magnet of the wonderfully increasing commerce of the Pacific Ocean. It has not been long since the Great Northern reached its terminal on Puget Sound. More recently the Santa Fé system has reached its new outlets at Sacramento and San Francisco. The western termini of the Burlington, the Northwestern, the Milwaukee & St. Paul, and other lines are constantly moving westward, and you have but to look at the map to see how inevitably all are seeking independent crossings of the Continental Divide, with ultimate termini on the shore of the Pacific."

The trend toward railway consolidation has recently had striking exemplification both in the West and in the South. In the West, the Burlington system has become the owner of the branch lines in Iowa, Missouri, and Nebraska, which it formerly held under lease, while in the South, the Georgia Railway, the Atlanta & West Point Railway, and the Western Railway of Alabama have been consolidated as the Georgia division of the Louisville and Nashville system. The latter transaction has not been formally completed, but can already be regarded as an assured fact.

The most important line of new railway recently projected will extend from Los Angeles, by way of San Bernardino, to Salt Lake City. It will cost twenty-five millions to build the line, but, by reason of the personal resources of its projectors, there will be no issue of construction bonds. Ex-Senator William A. Clark, of Montana, who some months ago purchased a controlling interest in the Los Angeles Terminal Railway, is the directing spirit in the enterprise, which will not only open to settlement and development a country rich in mineral and agricultural resources, but, by its connection at Salt Lake City with the transcontinental lines having termini there, will afford a new outlet to the Pacific. The surveys are being pushed with all possible speed, and grading and track laying will begin before the end of the present month.

The Completion of the Cascade Tunnel

THE completion of the Cascade Tunnel of the Great Northern Railroad, now nearly accomplished, marks the beginning and passing of two of the most remarkable engineering achievements of modern times.

For ten years the transcontinental trains of this road have ascended and descended the mountains of the Cascade range, carrying their freight of human lives, and during that period not a single accident has been recorded. The "Switchback" is an expensive and time-consuming method of crossing the mountains, but when the line was surveyed there was no other route feasible.

The "Switchback" is the series of zigzag ascending and descending tracks over the mountains. The approach to it is through tremendous gorges, notably Tumwater Cañon, which is about thirty-three miles this side the main barrier of the Cascades.

When it was known that President Hill had decided to bore through the mountain of solid granite, railroad men smiled. It was bad enough on the stockholders, they said, to push the Great Northern across hundreds of miles of barren, worthless prairie, but it would be financial suicide to carry out the project of tunnelling the Cascade range. For a year or more the undertaking was known as "Hill's folly." No comments of this nature are heard now. The terminals of the tunnel at Cascade and Wellington may now be seen by passengers while crossing on the "Switchback." This great piece of engineering is two miles and a half long. The roof will be at one place of solid granite, 5350 feet thick. The tunnel is in a straight line from the head of one cañon to that of another, with a slope of about ninety feet to the mile. The east portal is at an elevation of about 3375 feet above the sea-level, while the west portal is about 3125 feet above the same base.

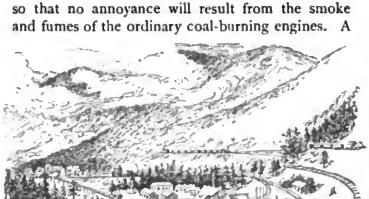
Work on the approaches to the tunnel was begun in January, 1897. An average of eight hundred men have been employed on the tunnel from the first, the forces being equally divided and working toward the centre from each side of the mountain. The two forces met on October 2, but the tunnel will not be ready for use before January 1.

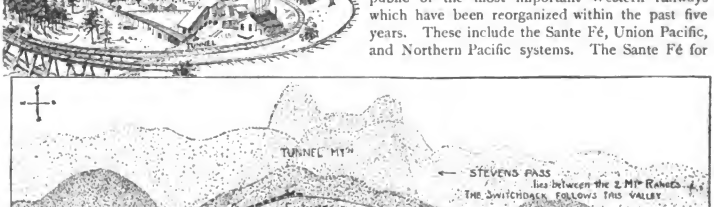
Tons of dynamite have been used in blasting the granite. The dislodged rock is taken out of the tunnel on electric cars and delivered to a large crusher with a capacity of forty tons per hour, which crushes it into small fragments. These are then mixed with sand and Portland cement, taken back

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into the tunnel, and used to line the inside with an imperishable wall four feet thick.

The completed tunnel is twenty-three feet high by sixteen feet wide. Huge exhaust fans, driven by electricity and a system of pipes, will keep the air in it always pure. Electric motors will be used in hauling freight and passenger trains through it, so that no annoyance will result from the smoke and fumes of the ordinary coal-burning engines. A





THE REMARKABLE CASCADE TUNNEL ON THE GREAT NORTHERN RAILROAD

double row of electric lights will light this immense white tube, which, as far as human foresight can predict, will endure for countless ages, a monument to the daring ingenuity of James J. Hill.

Paying our Debt to Europe

THE closing months of 1900 have emphasized the fact that the United States is fast nearing the day when she will no longer be numbered among the debtor nations. The enormous debt to Europe, incurred by American railway builders, and the attendant development of wide-reaching areas of mineral, agricultural, and timber land, is now being rapidly diminished, and promises soon to be completely wiped out. America's natural wealth and the skill and ingenuity of our people, together with the normal profits of invested capital, have finally turned the scale, and for months Europe has been surrendering our stocks and bonds, and sending over receipts in full for the obligations contracted in past years. More than that, she is now executing mortgages to America that call for semi-annual tribute in the future. These mortgages take the shape of foreign government bonds, which are welcomed with increasing favor by American purchasers, and sell at higher prices in our financial centres than they command from the subjects of the sovereigns who issued them. More of these foreign loans are sure to be floated in America, and proofs multiply that the tendency of the present and the future is for the Old World to look for financial succor to the New.

GREAT RAILWAY EARNINGS

Another satisfactory feature of the financial situation is supplied by the annual reports lately made public of the most important Western railways which have been reorganized within the past five years. These include the Sante Fé, Union Pacific, and Northern Pacific systems. The Sante Fé for



the ended fiscal year shows net earnings of a little less than nineteen millions, or nearly double those of 1899, assuring, after the payment of interest and other charges, a surplus equal to the full five per cent upon its preferred stock, and to four per cent upon its common stock. The net surplus of the Union Pacific, after due provision for all operating expenses and fixed charges, amounts to upward of thirteen millions — a sum not only sufficient to pay the full four per cent dividend upon its preferred

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stock, but also providing a balance amounting to nine per cent upon its common stock. The gross earnings of the Northern Pacific amounted to thirty millions. Out of this it paid three millions upon its preferred and a somewhat smaller sum upon its common stock, devoting three-fourths of a remaining surplus of four millions to additions and betterments for existing lines. When it is remembered that all three of these systems were bankrupt only a few years ago, the results outlined above give cause for wonder and admiration. Through efficiency and integrity of management conditions have been obtained which promise to endure for a long period, and the stocks of each of these companies now possess a genuine attraction for people seeking investments that will yield fair yet certain returns. Indeed, it is not too much to say that future dividends on their preferred shares are as sure as anything under human direction can be, while fair, even if less assured, returns seem to be promised upon their common stocks.

The instances just cited are not exceptional ones. Millions of dollars' worth of shares which only a few years ago represented foreclosed and bankrupt properties are at present paying dividends, while from two-thirds of the railway mileage of the country being in the hands of receivers, very few properties, and those of secondary importance, are now in such condition. In October, 1896, the total of dividend payments on railroad and other shares familiar to the layman was fifteen millions. In the same month of the current year dividends aggregated thirty millions — exactly double. These figures, however, deal with but a single phase of the business prosperity and expansion achieved within the period to which they apply. In October, 1896, stocks of a par value of $772,000,000 paid dividends. In the same month of 1900 the par value of dividend-paying shares was $1,662,000,000, an increase of $850,000,000, which means that the capital invested in railroad and other securities yielding profits to their holders has more than doubled in four years. Within the same period the par value of bonds paying interest has swelled by $390,000,000, and careful observers predict that the total of interest and dividend disbursements in 1900 will be $200,000,000 in excess of that of 1896. It is a great exhibit which this record of expansion of interest and dividends makes.

THE INCREASING SUPPLY OF GOLD

One other feature of the financial situation merits attention: Recent heavy engagements of gold from Europe, which the Bank of England sought in vain to discourage, have been concurrent with large receipts at Pacific coast ports from Australia, Alaska, and the Klondike, and a continuous and increased domestic production of the metal. By home productions and importations the country's gold supply will be increased by fully $100,000,000 in this calendar year.

American Promotion of Rapid Transit in London

CONSTRUCTION has already been begun of the underground railway, seven miles long, running from Charing Cross (in London) to North London, — with American money, by American energy, under the charter bought by Mr. Yerkes of Chicago, — and it is expected that fares will be collected before the end of 1902. British engineers and contractors have been selected for the task, but they will work on American plans and with American material. Among the innovations will be express trains and baggage-cars, while motor-cars will be used instead of electric locomotives.

The Charing Cross line is only a modest beginning of the comprehensive scheme of rapid transit which Mr. Yerkes has in mind, for it is his purpose to follow in this new field the same plans and methods which have developed the outlying districts of Chicago as those of no other city were ever developed.

"We shall build the line," said he to a representative of THE WORLD'S WORK, "from Charing Cross almost due north to Hampstead, with connections to Euston, Paddington, and perhaps Victoria. There will also be a connecting station with the new Central London Railway. But in executing this work we shall only provide what we intend to be the parent stem of a system of rapid trade which will bring a large territory north of London within residential distance of city workers of all classes. This we shall accomplish by making our northern terminus the meeting-point of surface electric lines radiating fan-like in all directions. The plan was the essential feature and the most successful one of the system by means of which we opened up the country for forty miles around Chicago. Land in the suburbs of that city which before the coming of the trolley line sold by the acre, was divided up into house-lots and sold by the foot as soon as the electric car appeared. But the trolley has done much more than enhance the value of Chicago real estate. It is banishing tenement life from that city, and so improving its health that its death rate is now the lowest, size considered, in the world. Rapid transit planned on the same lines will do for London or for any other congested city all that it has done for Chicago. We shall confine our efforts to the north of London, one enterprise of magnitude being sufficient for the hour; but if we succeed, similar facilities will be forthcoming for other sections of the city."

American energy and dollars, it seems, are to provide the English capital with another enterprise of far-reaching consequence and importance. This is no more nor less than a ship canal from Southampton to London. A route has been surveyed by competent engineers, who report that such a waterway is feasible and can be built for a sum that will assure handsome returns to its American projectors. The whole matter has been placed in the

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hands of the same firm of contractors which is to build Mr. Yerkes's underground railway, and, though grave legal and other difficulties remain to be overcome, promises to take definite shape at an early date. The revolutionary changes that would be wrought by a ship canal enabling the largest ocean liners to land their passengers in the heart of London many hours earlier than by any other route can be easily inferred from the growing popularity of the smaller steamship lines now sailing to and from London by the slow and difficult way of the Thames.

Our Growing Trade with Australia

ONE of the most significant and hopeful features of our foreign trade is the wonderful gain that we are making in Australian markets. Our exports to Australia are increasing much more rapidly than those from Germany, despite the heavy subsidy paid by the Kaiser's government during the past seven years to maintain cheap and regular steamship communication and low rates to the British colonies in the South Pacific. Although efforts to extend the sale of American goods during the same period were entirely of individual enterprise, by 1899 American exports had increased to a little less than $20,000,000, while those from Germany were only a trifle more than $4,000,000. During the fiscal year 1900 our exports to this market reached the splendid total of $27,000,000.

The growth of much of this trade from the Atlantic States has been due to the energy of the New York exporting house of Flint, Eddy & Co., who established an Australian department five years ago, with Mr. H. C. Payne in charge. A little later the same firm put in operation a line of direct steamers from New York to the several Australian ports. Previously all merchandise from this country either went by way of San Francisco or was transshipped at Liverpool. At first there was barely freight enough for one steamer a month, but now one sails every ten days with full cargoes of from 4000 to 8000 tons of American goods.

"We are besting the English merchant on his own grounds," said Mr. Payne to THE WORLD'S WORK, and he continued: —

"We offer lower prices, and our goods give better satisfaction. We have at last convinced our manufacturers of the wisdom of making special brands for particular markets, and in every line of trade, save fine dress goods and fancy articles, we can compete successfully with Great Britain in her own colonies. Indeed, we now monopolize the market in many things which two years ago went entirely from England. One of these is corrugated iron for roofing purposes, of which an immense quantity is used in Australia. Until last year nearly every pound was bought in England, but now we are sending it by the shipload. A few weeks ago we sent a thousand tons of bar iron to Australia — our first shipment. Great quantities of bar iron are now shipped from England, but, though we have to carry it 3000 miles further to reach Sydney and Melbourne, you will see us wrest this trade from England in a year or two. American electrical supplies, carriages, buggies, farming implements, carpenters' tools and other cutlery, print paper, tobacco, lamps, china, glassware, rubber goods, plated ware, furniture, and a hundred other things, are now shipped to Australia from this country.

"No foreign market is using as much American hardware as Australia. Every outgoing steamer carries thousands of dollars' worth of hardware specialties, and leading import firms at Sydney and Melbourne have their representatives in this market, who buy hardware almost exclusively in large quantities."

BOOTS AND SHOES TO FOREIGN MARKETS

Australia has become the best market also for American boots and shoes, to which, in a year, $750,000 worth are sent. England follows, with purchases last year of $700,000; then the West Indies, with $600,000; Canada, with $400,000; and Mexico, with $300,000. By the substitution of machine-made for hand-made shoes, by the economies introduced in the processes of tanning, and by the introduction of improved mechanical processes, American manufacturers now command unrivalled facilities for supplying not only the people of this country, but those of other countries, with boots and shoes at low prices. Thanks to these conditions, American exports of these goods the past twelve months have been the largest in the history of the trade.

The superintendent of sales of the George E. Keith Company, of Boston, one of the largest concerns of its kind exporting its own goods, recently said to a representative of THE WORLD'S WORK that his company's foreign sales during the first nine months of the current year had exceeded by nearly $1,000,000 those of the same period in 1899. Much of this increase was due to newly created markets in the Philippines, the treaty ports of China, the Straits Settlements, and India. The English, he said, prefer our shoes to any others, and many American concerns now maintain retail stores in London and other British cities. Heretofore American boots and shoes have been sold almost exclusively in countries in which English is the language spoken, or in which business is carried on in English; but now they are finding buyers in every part of the world. It may be noted as, perhaps, the most gratifying feature of our growing foreign trade in boots and shoes, that those shipped abroad give such satisfaction that a market once attained is not thereafter lost.

The Projected Pacific Cable

THE establishment of a trans-Pacific submarine cable, often considered by Congress during the last thirty years, promises to take tangible shape during the next twelve months. The

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greatest obstacle in the past to such an enterprise has been a scarcity of mid-ocean resting-places, no single government controlling a sufficient number of suitable landing-places to make it practicable, in view of the belief that the distance from which messages could be sent and cables controlled was limited. The war with Spain and its sequel have removed this objection, and the government survey of the route which would connect California and Asia, by the Hawaiian Islands, Guam, and the Philippines, has revealed no obstacle which may not be avoided in laying the cable.

No section of a cable laid along this route would equal in length that now in operation between France and the United States. The latter line is 3250 miles long, while the greatest distance from land to land on the proposed Pacific route would be from San Francisco to Hawaii, 2089 miles, that from Hawaii to Wake Island being 2040 miles. It is estimated that the building of such a cable would involve an expenditure of twenty millions, while a branch line from Guam to Japan would cost an additional four millions.

For this reason the selection of a northerly route finds numerous and earnest advocates. One has already been surveyed, though not by the government, and it has been found that it divides itself into six lines of about 800 miles each. The stations proposed on this route are Sitka, the capital of Alaska; Kadiak Island, the farthest station north; Dutch Harbor, the great central port of the North Pacific; Attu, the western end of North America; the Japanese-Russian border; and northern Japan, whence many overland wires, as well as cables, run to within 200 miles of the Philippines. The longest of these links falls within 900 miles, and Chandler Hale, one of the advocates of the northerly route, points out that a cable line by it would cost only six millions. Another of its decided advantages is that it avoids great depths, the average not exceeding a thousand fathoms. Repairs could be made at all seasons of the year, and a single spare cable of 850 miles would replace any link, while repair ships could find safe harbors within 120 miles of any break. Moreover, it would lie in latitude all lower than that of Aberdeen, Scotland, and in climates far superior to that of the North Atlantic.

Whichever route may be finally selected, government aid of private enterprise is pretty sure to take the shape of a liberal annual subsidy, since it is stated on reliable authority that for a yearly guarantee of $400,000 for the transmission of government messages responsible individuals and companies stand ready to lay and operate a cable following either of the proposed routes. No better way could be found for the discharge of a great and important task. A cable is essentially a commercial bond, and will be of far greater value to the world and to its owners if conducted as an individual venture than if undertaken wholly as a government work.

The Movement of Prices

By John R. Commons

FORMERLY, when agriculture was the absorbing industry, economists and statesmen looked upon the price of wheat as an index to business prosperity and adversity. To-day, when the predominance of agriculture is contested by manufactures, mining, building, and transportation, and when agriculture itself is split into a dozen specialties, we must look to the prices of *all* staple products as our index to prosperity. But the ordinary man cannot do this. The staples are too many. Only the expert, whose livelihood requires it, can "keep his head" in the maze of forty or more fluctuating prices. The ordinary man must be furnished with an *average* or a *total* of some sort. But an average or a total of the prices of forty or more commodities is an absurdity. Who would think of figuring out the average price of a bushel of wheat at 60 cents, a ton of coal at $4.00, a thousand feet of lumber at $20.00, and a yard of print cloth at 3 cents? What would be the name of the article to which the average price pertained?

If there is not an average price, there is another device which we can adopt. All of these prices can be reduced to a common base. We can take the price of each at a given date — say January, 1860 — or the average price of each for a given period — say the years 1879 to 1889, as is done in these diagrams — and can give to this base price for each article the common value of 100. The prices at all the other dates would then be stated in terms of percentages, or "index numbers," of this base price. These percentages can then be averaged, and we have the general index number for the date selected.

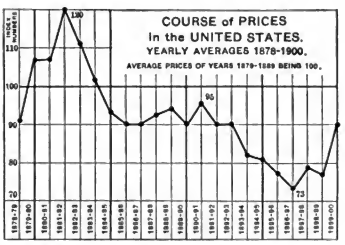


Diagram I. shows the index number thus derived for 22 years and 66 staple products of the United

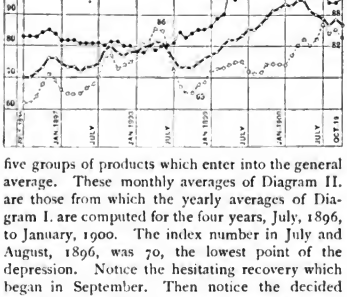
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States. This is as accurate a measure of the trend of business through booms, panics, and depressions, as can be devised. Each of the 66 articles is given weight according to its importance.

Notice the swift rise of prices from 1879 to 1882, in a period of prosperity never before equalled. The index number rises from 91 to 120, a rise of 32%. Notice the panic and depression that followed, in which the entire gain was lost. Then came faltering recovery, but in 1893 another drop and a depression almost worse than anything known. The lowest point was 73 — in 1896–7 — a fall of nearly 20% in four years, and of 40% since 1881–2.

Here again comes a brilliant recovery, rivalling that of 1879–82. The index number for the crop year ending June, 1900, is 90, a rise of 23%, and a complete restoration of the level of 1885 and 1892.

Diagram II. gives certain details of this prosperity by months, and a comparison between two of the



five groups of products which enter into the general average. These monthly averages of Diagram II. are those from which the yearly averages of Diagram I. are computed for the four years, July, 1896, to January, 1900. The index number in July and August, 1896, was 70, the lowest point of the depression. Notice the hesitating recovery which began in September. Then notice the decided bulge of August, 1897, to May, 1898, when the index number reached 81. The causes of this bulge appear quite plain if we notice the extraordinary rise of agricultural products (corn, oats, wheat, rye, barley, rice, potatoes, beans, sugar, hay, flaxseed, wool, and cotton). A wheat shortage in 1897 in Europe, Argentina, Australia, and India, and an enormous crop in America, had two effects. It sent the index number of agriculture up to 86, and it brought gold from Europe. A remarkable shifting of interests followed. Agriculture tumbled to 65 by reason of the large crop of 1898. During all this time the metals and minerals (iron, silver, copper, lead, zinc, quicksilver, tin, coal, lumber, petroleum, phosphate rock) had not only not risen, but had actually fallen (see Diagram II.). But when they began to feel the farmers' gold, they took their turn at buoyancy, and jumped in 16 months from 80 to 115, a rise of nearly 44%. Pig iron rose 135%.

The general index number touched its highest point in March and April, 1900. Since then the groups have come closer together. The war in the Transvaal checked the gold supply. Prices could not be sustained. Metals and minerals dropped to 94. Pig iron lost 36%. But short crops of cotton and wheat are again helping agriculture. The general index number for October 19 is 87, a drop of 7.4% since April. But agriculture is close at hand, namely 83, and metals and minerals are at 95. The presidential election is past. Gold will soon be coming from South Africa. Which direction will the index number take ?

The Regained Commerce of New Orleans

NEW ORLEANS does not look like itself at all these days; for its pulse throbs with a new life, a commercial activity its people have not known for many years. Early in the nineties the sluggishness into which the city had fallen began to give way to new conditions, and trade lost years before began slowly to return to the port. Then came quarantines for three successive seasons — 1897, 1898, 1899 — which paralyzed commerce; but it spurred business men to action, and the result is one of the most gigantic sanitary projects the world has ever known. The past summer was remarkable for phenomenal health conditions, and the knowledge that there would be no quarantines this year restored confidence, and plans were laid for a record-breaking business for 1900–1901.

Thus, when the season opened, New Orleans was better prepared for handling an immensely increased trade than ever before in her history. The tide turned in her favor. Then Galveston was wrecked. Cotton, grain, lumber, and countless other commodities poured in, and the wharves for miles along the river front soon assumed an unwonted activity. The facilities of the port are not being taxed; the preparation has been too great for that, but the large number of vessels clearing, the increased quantity and value of their cargoes, the tens of thousands of laborers employed in handling the augmented commerce, the magnitude of the bank clearings, and the general prosperity tell the story in a language that may not be misunderstood. High-priced cotton is largely but not wholly responsible for a 51 per cent increase in bank clearings. A reclaimed coffee trade and an active export business in lumber and grain all figure to no mean extent.

The wonderful growth of the rice-planting industry in Louisiana has attracted the attention of

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Northern capitalists, and an effort is now being made to form a combine, backed by $7,500,000 of capital, for the purpose of controlling the rice markets of the United States. The promoters of this scheme are New York men, and their plan is to secure an option on 90 per cent of the rice crops of the country for four years. Several meetings have been held in the rice district of Louisiana and the plan explained to the planters. In most cases the planters signed the contract presented by the promoters, which, in return for the option, guarantees that the combine would buy all the rice raised by the signers and pay for it at increased prices. The promoters express confidence in the ultimate success of the scheme, the planters are non-communicative, while the brokers, whose business will be ruined if the combine is successful, laugh at the idea of $7,000,000 or any like sum being raised for such a purpose. The outcome is awaited with considerable interest in New Orleans.

The Louisiana Centennial at St. Louis

A POWERFUL factor in the business and social life of St. Louis for the next two or three years will be the centennial, in 1903, of Jefferson's Louisiana expansion. This is to be celebrated by a world's fair in St. Louis. Every activity in the city will be quickened by it. Its influence is already beginning to be manifested. Part of the great increase which is taking place in the city's postal receipts is due to that cause. The real estate market is strengthening on account of it. Many of the inquiries for business sites in the city are incited by it. Possibly some of the new manufactories which are locating in St. Louis have this as an attraction. Probably the increase which is being made in the output of many factories already here and that which is being planned in others have this as an impelling cause.

Chicagoans say the Columbian fair of 1893 added 100,000 or 150,000 to their city's permanent population. St. Louis expects to be benefited in a corresponding degree by the international exposition of 1903. World's fairs are popular in this age, and St. Louis feels that it can easily avoid some of the mistakes made by Chicago in 1893 and by Paris in 1900. It is confident, also, that in some respects it can improve on the great exhibitions held in both of those cities.

Celebrations of anniversaries of epoch-making events have an educative influence aside from the exhibits which those taking the form of international expositions attract from all parts of the globe. In arousing an historic interest in the particular event commemorated, they induce further incursions among readers into the historic field in every direction, and add to the sum total of human knowledge. This influence is especially active in St. Louis at this moment, as is shown by the increase in the number of books on history and biography, especially American history and biography, which are called for in the city's circulating libraries and which are sold in the city's bookstores.

St. Louis' future, however, is not dependent on the success or failure of the international exposition of 1903. It is the fourth city in the United States in population. It is growing faster than are its nearer neighbors on the census list — Boston and Baltimore. Physically, industrially, and intellectually it is expanding with gratifying rapidity. Omitting Chicago from the calculation, it is the metropolis and great distributing centre of the Mississippi valley.

St. Paul's Substantial Growth

THE growth of St. Paul is marked in many ways other than by increase in population. The capital of Minnesota has become strong in commerce and manufacturing. There is hardly a country on the globe in which her products are not found. Improvement is noted in railroad facilities, in public buildings, parks, and paved streets. The advance made during the past year in the wholesale and manufacturing trade has been greater than during any similar period in the city's history.

Nearly four hundred miles of new railroad have been added to the territory of the St. Paul jobbers during the year, while the population of the consumers in this same territory has increased more than one hundred thousand. The effect of this development of new country is shown in the expansion of the business of wholesale merchants.

Among the successful manufactories which have come into prominence during the past year, is the grass twine factory, now one of the largest institutions in the state. The raw material for the manufacture of binding twine, rugs, carpets, and matting is the common wire grass found in the swamps of Minnesota and western Wisconsin.

The grass binding twine has supplanted the Manila twine in the harvest fields and is acknowledged to be as good, and is certainly much cheaper, than the foreign product. The grass is treated to a patented process which makes it as pliable as cotton threads, and in this state is woven into many highly artistic designs for home and office comfort and decoration. So extensive has been the demand for the products of the twine factory that the plant has been kept in operation night and day a great portion of the time.

The state capitol, now nearing completion, is, with only a few exceptions, the handsomest public structure in the country. Built entirely of white

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Georgia marble from basement to top of dome, highly sculptured, many of the figures being the handiwork of Daniel Chester French, there are few more beautiful buildings to be found anywhere. The $1,500,000 federal building, under construction since 1895, is now occupied, though not entirely finished.

The Passing of Old Philadelphia

OLD Philadelphia is a passing city, and new Philadelphia an accomplished fact. New blood has wrought the change. For over a century the old-fashioned, white-shuttered houses about Independence and Washington squares had been the sarcophagi of mummified ideals of fame. Within the past ten years a new generation has risen to power, and these tombs are giving place to new buildings, hives inviting industry. The men who existed in these houses are gone. Many of them amassed immense fortunes, not by the fostering of industries, but by quietly accumulating money from rent rolls, from safe foreign speculations, and from mild real estate ventures. The heirs, however, who now control these fortunes are not content to follow the methods of their fathers. They dare to make bolder ventures; they want to see their money work; they want to double in a decade what was accumulated in a half century.

Nowhere is the new order of things more markedly in evidence than in the vicinity of Broad and Chestnut streets. There "sky-scrapers" are building. The tallest at present is the nearly completed *North American* building, where that newspaper will have its home after the end of the present year. This is the younger Wanamaker's enterprise. The elder Wanamaker's new building, which will stand where his store now is, extending from Chestnut to Market Street, and from Thirteenth Street to Penn Square, will perhaps be the largest building ever erected by an individual. Plans are being made for it, and Mr. Wanamaker is said to have declared that he will spend $5,000,000 on the building alone. The *North American* twenty-story building represents an investment of one-tenth of that sum.

Penn Square, enclosing Philadelphia's $23,000,000 city hall, is being surrounded by new tall buildings. Matching the great Wanamaker building, which will tower over the southeast corner of the square, will be the new Pennsylvania Railroad office-building on the southwest corner. This building will be thirteen stories high, and will be known as the Continental Trust Company building, that company to have a bank on the ground floor. A bridge over Market Street will connect the new building with the Pennsylvania Railroad's Broad Street station.

Two new theatres, to cost $1,000,000 each, are assured. They will be Keith's, on the old Baldwin mansion site, on Chestnut Street, above Eleventh, and the Garrick, to be built by William Wrightman, on Sansom Street, below Broad. This theatre will have a Chestnut Street entrance. Two hotels to cost $1,000,000 each are also promised. John Stafford, an operative builder, will erect one of these on the southeast corner of Thirteenth and Walnut streets. The other is to be built upon the site of the old Epiphany Church, on the northeast corner of Chestnut and Fifteenth streets, by Anthony M. Zane, another operative builder, who bought the site from Mr. Wanamaker for $1,000,000. Four years ago the great merchant paid $600,000 for the place.

Mr. Zane is said to be backed by Messrs. Widener and Elkins, of the Land Title Trust Company, and these two millionaires have practically completed arrangements for the purchase of the Lafayette Hotel, on Broad and Sansom streets, proposing to tear it down and to extend the Land Title Trust office building, seventeen stories high, over the site. Across Sansom Street from the hotel is the Union League Club, facing Broad Street. Next year the building will be torn down, and the largest club building in the world will take its place.

A Southern Coal-shipping and Ship-building Centre

BALTIMORE business men are keenly interested in the agreement lately made by the United States Shipping Company to handle the export business of a number of steamship lines having schedules between Norfolk, Portsmouth, and Newport News and foreign ports. It has been the custom for a vessel to take on part of its cargo at Newport News, for instance, then to proceed to Norfolk or Portsmouth to complete it, and *vice versa*. The expense of transferring ships of the size which serve these cities from one port to another, the time lost in stopping and getting under way, and the item of additional labor have amounted to a large cost. As a very large quantity of breadstuffs, salted provisions, metals, and manufactured products for export come direct to Newport News over the Chesapeake & Ohio and its connections, it is intended to make that city one of the principal loading points for such freight, and much of that received at Norfolk and Portsmouth will be barged to Newport News. The general agent of the United States Shipping Company at Norfolk says that whenever it is more convenient for a vessel to take on cargo at Norfolk or Portsmouth a ship will be sent to these wharves directly. Norfolk and Portsmouth have been the natural receiving points from the South proper for Southern exports, such as cotton, lumber, and naval stores. Most of the cotton has been sent to North Atlantic cities for shipment

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abroad, the Old Bay Line, Merchants & Miners' Transportation Company, and the Old Dominion Line carrying it to the ports mentioned, thus largely increasing their freight business.

With one agency to represent the several lines, they will be working in harmony, and the outlook will be to greatly increase the foreign business from the Hampton Roads cities as a whole. The terminals at Newport News, which are among the best in the world, are admirably adapted to handle this. The elevator capacity alone is about 2,500,000 bushels, while vessels can be loaded from no less than ten different piers arranged for the direct and economical transfer of freight of all kinds. The coal export trade of that port, already very heavy, is growing rapidly, and all indications point to the possibility of Newport News and Norfolk becoming one of the greatest coal-shipping centres of the world.

The steadily growing business of the Maryland Steel Company is proving the foresight and business sagacity of the capitalists who established that concern at Sparrows Point ten years ago. This company has secured a contract for the construction of two steamships, which are to be devoted exclusively to freight carrying. The order represents fully $1,000.000, and, including it, the Maryland Company leads all of the ship-yards in the United States in contracts so far secured for exclusive freight ships. Its work now on hand includes four vessels of a cargo capacity of over 11,000 tons; one vessel of 5500 tons; the largest floating dry-dock in the world, to be located at Algiers, Louisiana; two sea-going dredges, which are the largest in the United States; and three torpedo-boats for the government.

Water Outlets for Steel and Coal

NO more vital question of industrial growth has ever presented itself to the capitalists of Pittsburg than the one now being turned over in their minds as to what the near future will bring forth for the city's vast coal interests. Both of the big local combinations, one covering rail and the other river shipments, have under consideration from Europe propositions to supply consumers there with from four to five million tons of coal, the greater portion for steam purposes. How much of this will be actually turned into orders is as yet uncertain, but that is a small point in the whole subject matter. The fact that a time has come when Europe turns to America for the fuel which England is to-day supplying only by great strain on her mining facilities is the grasping one which has taken root in the minds of the Pittsburg coal operators.

The brains and energy of the coal and iron industries about Pittsburg are now concentrated in an effort to solve the transportation problem, which is the single barrier confronting them in the way to supremacy in Old World markets. Far-reaching schemes are under consideration. Two of these are artificial waterways leading to the ocean; and the inquiries which have come to Pittsburg from Europe this fall for enormous consignments of coal, along with the necessity of the iron and steel makers to market more of their products abroad in order to keep the mills busy, have made earnest champions for each scheme.

Pittsburg manufacturers wish the United States to build the Isthmian canal. With the Ohio River slackwatered, the works to do it now rapidly nearing completion, and the canal cut, western Pennsylvania would send by boat millions of tons of freight yearly across the Gulf of Mexico and through the canal to the markets of the Pacific.

The other big waterway proposed is a canal to join the Ohio River with Lake Erie. Four or five years ago, the Pittsburg Chamber of Commerce spent nearly $50,000 in surveys on this scheme. Interest lagged with the building of the Carnegie railroad from Pittsburg to the lake, but five years have wrought such giant changes in industrial possibilities that what looked like an impossible undertaking then, now presents itself virtually in the light of a necessity. A local engineer of ability and some of the canal's stanchest friends feel sure it will be built within a very few years. Congressman John Dalzell will present a bill in Congress this month to give the Lake Erie and Ohio River Canal Company a national charter. The canal cost in building is estimated at $30,000,000. The manufacturing and mining combinations of Pittsburg could supply that amount among them without much, if any, strain on their financial resources. The men behind the scheme believe no trouble will be encountered in raising the money if Congress acts favorably.

The great boom in the steel market of last fall and winter closed the eyes of manufacturers to trade offerings outside North America. Orders for foreign delivery went begging from mill to mill. Not so now. The utmost energy is being expended to get this foreign business and find a way to come out ahead of the enormous ocean freight rates. The city numbers many more advocates of a merchant-marine measure than it did a few years ago, although some of its early advocates were Pittsburg manufacturers. There is a general feeling that a little governmental encouragement would bring millions of capital into the ship-building industry, and soon creating enough American bottoms to carry this country's products, instead of having to depend almost solely on Europe's shipowners.

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The Future of Boston as a Port

BOSTON'S opportunity for commercial advancement in the immediate as well as in the remote future is believed by her most substantial business men to lie in the development of her resources as a port. In the past three years it has advanced by a greater per cent in the amounts and values of shipments to foreign lands than any other port on the Atlantic seaboard, and the growth of business in that line is regarded as having only fairly begun. Its Chamber of Commerce has diverted to Boston a very large amount of the cotton shipments which formerly went abroad by the way of Baltimore and New Orleans. Its grain trade is increasing enormously. The Central Pacific railroad, which formerly carried all its large tonnage of grain to St. John, is now sending the bulk of it to Boston because the terminal facilities are better, and better ships, with greater tonnage, can be had for export purposes than can be had at St. John.

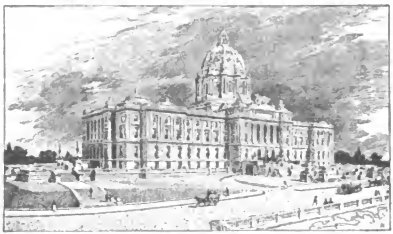
Since the Boston & Maine railroad came into possession of the Fitchburg railroad it has made a traffic arrangement with the Grand Trunk road, by which that company sends to Boston a large proportion of the grain which it formerly delivered at Atlantic ports in Canada. The winter rates, almost prohibitive from September to May at St. Lawrence points, have also diverted much grain traffic to Boston, and it is being encouraged to stay. Boston's elevator and other facilities for shipment of grain are already highly developed, and with the completion of the new Commonwealth docks, now in process of construction, will be unexcelled by any American port. When the docks are completed, one of the larger transatlantic lines now having New York as its main American port, will transfer the principal part of its business to Boston.

Effects of Sanitation in Memphis

THE growth of Memphis, Tennessee, during the last ten years has been something of a surprise to the country. In 1890 Richmond, Nashville, and Atlanta each had a larger population than Memphis, but the census of 1900 gives Memphis 102,320 as against 64,495 in 1890. The fact that Memphis has permanently enlarged her limits during the last two years does not account for this increase, because the suburbs were included in the city limits in 1890, and the 64,495 represented not only the urban but the suburban population. There has been an increase of nearly 59 per cent.

But the growth is not confined by any means to population. In 1890 the city had 250 industrial concerns. In 1900 it has more than 800; and the average capital stock of the manufacturing enterprise of to-day is fully four times as great as of the concern of ten years ago. Memphis is the greatest inland cotton market in the world; but cotton has become the secondary interest. Memphis is the first hardwood lumber market and the second lumber market in the world; and about 8000 persons are employed in the business.

The Waring Sewer System has redeemed the city, and it ranks among the first in health. Situated where Tennessee, Arkansas, and Mississippi meet, it is the metropolis of three states. It has river navigation, and eleven trunk lines of railroad radiating in all directions. The great bridge over the Mississippi is one of the most imposing in the world. The city has had to live down its yellow fever reputation. Its recent history is the best proof in the whole world perhaps of the value of an absolutely sound sanitary system.



THE NEW CAPITOL OF MINNESOTA AT ST. PAUL.

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JOHN FISKE.

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THE WORLD'S WORK

JANUARY 1901

VOLUME I NUMBER 3

The March of Events

THE most impressive spectacle in the world is the quiet, light-hearted, but serious way in which the people go about their work after a national election. A stranger would never guess from their demeanor the next day or the next month that they had just "saved the nation." In November and December they invested an unprecedented amount of money, for more securities were bought than ever before in this country within a similar period. They also went about making larger contracts and undertaking bigger tasks, and it is the fairest Christmas for a large proportion of the population that they can recall. There is a colossal and continental common-sense in the people, and an enormous energy. They refuse to accept the theoretical or the local notions of any sect or section, in politics or in practical affairs. The calm indifference that they show to non-essentials is like the indifference of the forces of nature; and the volume of their energy and labor is like nature, too, in its massive strength.

No event of the month is as interesting to thoughtful observers as this quality of a great democracy in a period just following an expression of its opinion. But there have been events, — the assembling of Congress, the President's review of the national condition and of our foreign relations, the taking up of such great subjects as the Nicaragua canal and the ship-subsidy bill, the death of Senator Davis, the continued but waning war in the Philippines of which the people are more than weary, the deliberations of the Cuban convention, the fruitless visit of Kruger to Europe, the reaching of a cruel and harsh agreement by the ministers in Pekin, and the modification of it by the Powers, and, not least, the publication of the "Life and Letters of Huxley."

OUR MANY "ENTANGLEMENTS"

THE new century finds the nation with a new impulse, industrial, intellectual, national. The era of isolation is passed. No more striking evidence could be given of the world-wide entanglements (if one so prefers to call them) and of the important international influence of the United States than the President's Message to Congress. Consider the range of topics that events made it necessary for him to present, to say nothing of their profound importance.

A treasury balance of nearly 300 millions (including the gold reserve fund), an annual surplus revenue of 80 millions, and the necessity to reduce it by at least 30 millions;

The cutting of the Nicaragua canal and the laying of a Pacific cable;

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The encouragement of our merchant marine (whether a subsidy be the right plan or not), to keep pace with the prodigious growth of our foreign trade;

The reorganization of the army, and the increase of the navy;

The increase of national banks; the growth of the postal service, of the agricultural department, and the strides in industry as shown by the census;

Most of all, our close relations with almost every other country under heaven — the Hay-Pauncefote treaty with Great Britain, and our Alaskan boundary dispute, a treaty with Nicaragua, special relations with Japan, with Mexico, with Turkey, and with Russia, besides our patient part in the concert of Powers about China; and reciprocity trade treaties with a number of nations; and

The interesting problems presented in the Philippines, in Cuba, and in Porto Rico.

It is a state paper that circles the globe in its topics; and not a single problem presented is one of our direct seeking. The home-keeping era of our national life is past, whether we grieve or rejoice at its passing; and nothing could bring it back, not even the programme of despair.

THE SHIP-SUBSIDY BILL

SINCE it seems unlikely that Congress will attempt to curtail Southern representation in the House, the most bitterly contested act of legislation this winter will be the Frye-Grosvenor Ship-subsidy bill. It is a measure to encourage American shipbuilding and American ownership of ships in foreign trade. The essence of it is protection to American shipbuilding. A Republican majority doubtless favor it, but there is very respectable Republican dissent both in and out of Congress. The Democrats are, practically, unanimously opposed to it. It may safely be called the most dangerous piece of legislation that is before Congress. The President in his Message recommended aid to our foreign commerce, doubtless with implied approval of this bill, but without specific mention of it. It will require perhaps nine millions a year to pay the subsidy, — a large enough sum to be easily felt in the budget for twenty years.

The bill grants a subsidy of one and a half cents a gross ton for each 100 miles over 1500 miles covered by American vessels, sail or steam, in the foreign trade. Another section of the bill, designed to serve the same purpose as the subventions with which Great Britain and Germany protect their fast mail lines, provides for "steam vessels which may be suitable for carrying the mails of the United States and as auxiliaries to the naval power of the United States" an additional subsidy based on speed and tonnage.

While the purpose of the bill is to protect and encourage American shipbuilding, its incidental purpose is to provide for auxiliary war ships. The incidental purpose will appeal to many men who do not sympathize with the main purpose.

The opposition to the bill rests on objection to the protective principle: our ship-yards are now busy without such protection. The opponents of the bill, moreover, maintain that the repeal of our navigation laws, which deny American registry to foreign-built ships, would give us all the ships we want by permitting Americans to buy them in the open market.

In one way or another the United States must and will regain ocean shipping; but there is more political danger in this bill than in any other piece of legislation now in sight.

OKLAHOMA AND STATEHOOD

THE territory of Oklahoma seeks statehood and makes a good claim to it. It contains 400,000 people, 90 per cent of whom are native Americans and 100,000 of whom are school children; they have 2000 schoolhouses, no penitentiary, not a poorhouse, and only six per cent of illiteracy — less than any one of 35 of the states. They own 75 millions of property. And 12 million acres are settled, and homesteaders are taking a million acres a year; 1000 miles of railroad brought last year 6000 carloads of manufactures and carried away 40,000 carloads of produce. Ten years ago the population was about 60,000. Such progress has been made by no other area of equal size in the United States. If Indian Territory should within a few years be added to Oklahoma, the two would have a population of at least a million, who would cast 100,000 votes and pay taxes on 150 millions of property.

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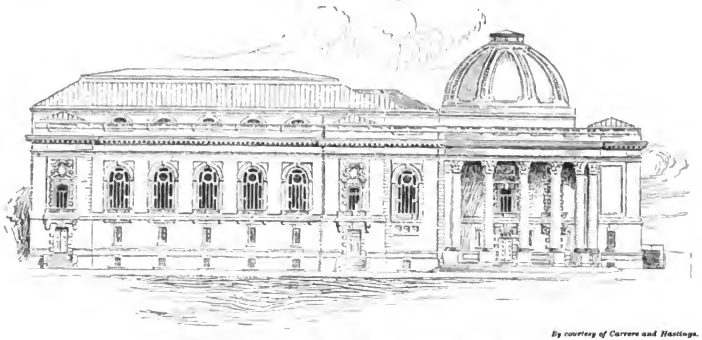


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PRESIDENT ARTHUR TWINING HADLEY OF YALE UNIVERSITY.

[*See page* 253.]

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By courtesy of Carrere and Hastings.

YALE'S BICENTENNIAL BUILDING (fronting College Street).

[See page 253.]

Congress has lately become conservative in admitting states. In 1889 North Dakota, South Dakota, Montana, and Washington were admitted, bringing eight new senators and six new representatives; and in 1896 Utah, upon a pledge of good behavior — a pledge that has been kept in the letter but not in the spirit. Not one of these five territories when they became states had the population or the promise that Oklahoma has. In fact, only two of them even now equal Oklahoma in population and in wealth. Congress is likely to admit it — grudgingly.

THE DEPRAVITY OF NEW YORK CITY

INTOLERABLE and unpardonable is the civic condition of New York City. In no other civilized community in the world, let us hope, is there such a state of things as the organized immorality in a large area of tenement life on the East side, where every night vice finds fresh child-victims, a tax on whose shame helps to "maintain the organization." Less causes have provoked war, and war, or pestilence, or almost any other evil, were better.

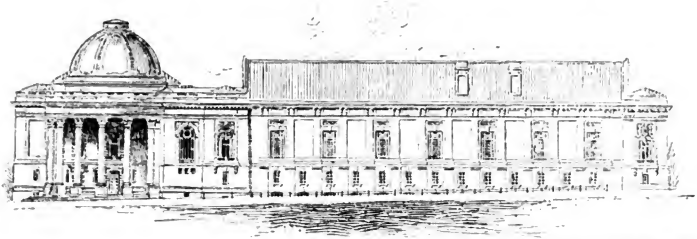
Bishop Potter did a disagreeable duty in a way to win all men's thanks when he wrote a temperate but indignant letter to the mayor. The agitation thus begun resulted in a meeting of citizens called by the Chamber of Commerce, and in the appointment of a committee of men of character and influence to take action. The great good sense of Bishop Potter was shown by his withdrawal from the "crusade" at this point. It is a matter for the most vigorous action by the business men of this city — by laymen and not by the clergy.

A crusade is following, and the men who are rescuing the city from such unspeakable shame are spending time and money with the greatest public spirit and unselfishness. But these recurring "crusades" impress one sadly; for the civic virtue of New York is spasmodic. Continuous, however, is the organized tyranny that feeds on vice. Shall an end never be put to it?

The disgraceful facts are known by everybody. Tammany rules New York; the organization thrives on blackmail and its tax on vice; the mayor, who is elected and controlled by Tammany, could at all times keep the depravity of the city reasonably subdued; for he is the responsible man. Yet the decent people of New York suffer Tammany mayors to be elected, and leave them to permit the city to become a den of damnation to fill the coffers of "the organization" — until the time comes for another "crusade."

But the wretched tax on vice and its encouragement as a taxable industry are insignificant facts in comparison with the criminal yielding of the great corporations to Tammany

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By courtesy of Currere and Hastings

YALE'S BICENTENNIAL BUILDING (fronting Grove Street).

[*See page* 253.]

Hall. They habitually submit to a levy which can properly be called nothing but blackmail. There will be no permanent cure of disgraceful rule in New York until the business men of the city have courage enough to deny these highwaymen's demands. Crusade may follow crusade, but the root of the evil will remain untouched till the great business interests cut off the organization's supplies. So long as hush-money, peace-money, blackmail, is paid, an organization to collect it and to profit by it will exist. It makes no matter whether it call itself Democratic or Republican. And an organization for plunder will not cease to exist till the plundered revolt. The whole community must take enough time from money-getting and pleasure to build up a strong civic sentiment. There is no other way. The government of the city is as good as the citizens of the city deserve for their civic inactivity and supineness.

HOW THE REST OF THE COUNTRY MAY HELP NEW YORK

BUT there is one thing that the citizens of New York have the right to ask of the good citizens of the rest of the country who hold to the faith of the Democratic party; and that is that they shall cease to do honor to Tammany Hall. It is an organization that fattens on vice and taxes depravity for its enrichment. It lives by blackmail, and feeds on the lowest passions of men and the greatest misfortune of women. Yet the Democratic party in many sections of the Union continues to regard it as a legitimate political organization. The Democratic candidate for the Presidency came here just before the election and exclaimed: "Great is Tammany, and Croker is its prophet!"

New York is unlike any other city in the Union in this, — it is the rendezvous of the wicked from all parts of the country. It has to carry a heavy burden of iniquity that is not native nor resident, in addition to its own iniquity. When on top of this additional burden is laid the still greater burden of the country's approval of the criminal organization that rules the city, the already difficult task of decent government is made much more difficult.

Good citizens in every part of the country can help New York to rid itself of this shame, if respectable Democrats will regard Tammany Hall as a den of thieves — a den of thieves so organized that many simple men who mean to be upright are duped into becoming part and parcel of it, for what they regard as good political reasons. Their personal respectability enables it the better to encourage the seduction of children for the profit of men who hold places of public trust. Until this depraved organization becomes permanently odious throughout the whole country, the task of maintaining decent government in New York will continue to be greater than the normal task of cleansing a great city of moral depravity; and men in every state in the Union who regard Tam-

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many as a legitimate political organization, ought to reflect on their own responsibility.

STREET FAIRS OF THE WEST

ONE of the oldest and most firmly fixed institutions of rural America is the county fair, and no social philosopher would have been daring enough to predict a modification of it; but a very novel and interesting modification was made in Faribault, Minn., several years ago, which has spread to many towns in Wisconsin, Iowa, North Dakota, South Dakota, and other states. The street fair seems to have established itself, for thousands are now held every year. It has something of the nature of a county fair, something of the nature of a carnival. It is an open-air exhibition and fête held in the streets of the town. It brings country-folk and town-folk together and promotes closer social relations. The merchants, of course, encourage it for their own reasons as well. The townspeople subscribe a fund and make preparations, and the country-folk come with their exhibits of vegetables or babies, and the community puts its most hospitable manner on. Every fair differs from all the rest, but all alike are held in the principal streets, which are gayly decorated; and booths are erected at the outer edges of the sidewalks. In these booths the wares of the merchants and products of the farms are all shown. On the side streets, sometimes, are poultry and live stock — cattle, horses, sheep, and swine. For farm products and works of handicraft premiums are offered as at the county fair. Sometimes where the



A STAND OF PUMPKINS
at a Western street fair.



STANDS
at a Western street fair.

streets are very wide long tents are set up in the centre. The amusements of the county fair also come to town — foot races, athletic exhibitions, beauty shows, fireworks, balloon ascensions.

In the county fair the interest of the townspeople is but casual. It is looked upon as a farmers' fair. But the street fair is their own — and the farmers' too. Not the least interesting indication given by the town fair is the complete blending in this dominant part of the country of the urban and the rural populations — unless, indeed, the countryman is in danger of regarding the town man as a more or less useless member of society.

EMPHASIZING THE NATIONAL FEELING

THE widening of the political and commercial horizon of the country shows itself in the Congressional sentiment about appropriations for public works. The dominant mood is to carry out plans that will strengthen the nation commercially or strategically, or that will add to our prestige abroad. There is a practically unanimous wish for a powerful navy, for a reasonably large and well-organized army, for coast defences in proportion to the importance of the territory defended, an isthmian canal, and all other plans that emphasize the national power. There is less chance, correspondingly, for national help to continue the Chicago drainage canal to the Mississippi, for the proposed improvements in the Mississippi itself, for the reclamation of arid lands, or for any other scheme of purely domestic value. Congress

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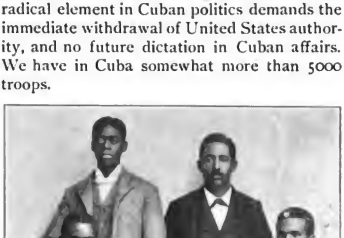
seems proud of our international dignity and strength, and is disposed to direct national energy and expenditure to truly national uses and to leave to private capital such internal improvements as can pay even moderate dividends. This mood will not mean perhaps any increase in appropriations for improvements, but it will mean a change in their aim.

OUR ISLAND WARDS

CONGRESS may now determine the status of the Philippines under our treaty with Spain; but nothing is likely to be done different in policy from the President's management of the problem. During the first few days in December more than 2000 insurgent Filipinos surrendered, and swore allegiance to the United States. Substantial progress has undoubtedly been made toward establishing peace, although 60,000 troops (some of whom may be natives) will for some time be required for service in keeping order in every part of the archipelago. The President, in his Message, expressed the attitude and aim of the Government in this sentence: "The fortune of war has thrown upon this Nation an unsought trust which should be unselfishly discharged, and devolved upon this Government a moral as well as material responsibility toward these millions whom we have freed from an oppressive yoke." If peace be restored without much more bloodshed, the campaign cry of imperialism will not again be heard. But the people have borne as long as they are likely to bear with patience the shocks to their humanitarianism which the loss of life has brought. The censorship of despatches from Manila has been removed, and every event since the election indicates the early success of our policy. The excellently chosen Philippine Commission continues to report hopefully.

The Legislature which was elected in Porto Rico in November is in session, courts have been established, and the President has asked Congress to authorize the Secretary of the Interior to survey and dispose of the public land on the island — the land that belonged to the Crown of Spain. In Porto Rico we now have only 1600 troops, half of whom are native.

When the Cuban Constitutional Convention, which is yet in session, submits a constitution to President McKinley, he will submit it to Congress. Señor Mendez Capote, who was chosen President of the Convention, was vice-president of the revolutionary government before the American intervention, and later Secretary of State in General Brooke's island cabinet. His election is a victory for the radicals, and foreshadows probable difficulty in adjusting the relations between the United States and the new Cuban government. The radical element in Cuban politics demands the immediate withdrawal of United States authority, and no future dictation in Cuban affairs. We have in Cuba somewhat more than 5000 troops.



AMERICAN NEGROES
who are to teach African natives cotton-raising.

THE AMERICAN NEGRO IN AFRICA

FOR a hundred years or thereabout a respectable society of eminent men has existed to send the Negroes back to Africa, partly to get rid of them in the United States and partly to encourage them to carry civilization to the dark continent; but the Negro has shown himself much wiser than the society. There was once hope, too, that Liberia would open the way to successful colonization. But small hope or no hope is now given in that quarter. Meanwhile the American Negro has remained in the United States, and Africa has thus far been reduced to civilization by other peoples. But he has always had a feeling that he ought and might in some way aid in the enlightenment of Africa.

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For this reason a sort of romantic interest follows the four well-trained young colored men who lately went from Tuskegee, Ala., to teach the natives on the west coast the culture of cotton. They have gone, under engagement by the German Government, to a settlement sixty miles inland, in the German colony of Togo, between Ashantee and Dahomey, — the very part of the continent from which most of the slaves were brought to the United States. Two of these men know that their ancestors came from this region.

They carried with them cotton seed, a gin, wagons, ploughs, and many kinds of agricultural tools, and vegetable seeds. Cotton has been raised for generations in this part of Africa, but only in the crudest way. Three of these men expect to spend the rest of their lives there; and one of them said as the boat moved away from the dock, "I feel as if I were going to my old home to carry something that my race has learned here."

MR. WASHINGTON'S AUTOBIOGRAPHY

MR. BOOKER T. WASHINGTON, the founder and principal of Tuskegee Institute for colored youth, has been prevailed on to write the story of his life, which the readers of *The Outlook* now profit by week by week. Perhaps there is not another citizen of the Republic whose autobiography would exceed this modest narrative in its direct human interest. The literary and social conventionalities that we put as a hedge about literature and all the little fuss and foolery of commonplace achievement vanish in the presence of a man who is called and ordained for a task like his, and who writes as naturally as he works.

SENATOR CUSHMAN K. DAVIS

THE death of Senator Cushman K. Davis of Minnesota removed one of the most useful men in public life. Both by his ability and his position as chairman of the committee on foreign relations he was among the most important members of the Senate. He was born in New York, and reared in Wisconsin, whence, in 1861, he went to the front as a private in an infantry regiment. After the war he settled in St. Paul. He was a member of the Legislature of Minnesota, twice governor, and he was elected to the National Senate in 1877, and twice reëlected, the last time in 1899. He was chairman of the Peace Commissioners to Paris. He stood squarely for accepting our wider responsibilities. In domestic affairs also he had a stalwart courage. During the labor troubles of 1893, he denounced from his seat in the Senate those who sought to defy the Constitution and laws of the United States, and upheld President Cleveland.

MR. JOHN FISKE'S AMERICAN HISTORY

MR. JOHN FISKE is nearing the completion of his great series of books of American history which will make a continuous narrative from the discovery of the continent through the critical period of 1783–1789. He is now finishing his volumes on the colonies. No such contribution has been made to American history, or, for that matter, to American narrative literature — if it be fair to call these great books narratives, for they are much more. Between volumes of history, Mr. Fiske goes forward with his even greater work represented by "The Destiny of Man," "The Idea of God," and "Through Nature to God." How fortunate that in this one great instance, as in no other, erudition is linked with mastery of style, in this richly poor time of dumb scholarship. Mr. Fiske will soon reach his fifty-ninth birthday (March 30); and this prodigious quantity of work (besides his earlier "Outlines of Cosmic Philosophy") has been done while he is yet young enough for his greatest tasks to lie before him.

WHAT NATIONAL SUPREMACY DEPENDS ON

THEY have a happy habit in England and Scotland of making frequent occasions for important speeches by their greatest men, and great Englishmen rise to these occasions. Much of the best thought of the time is given forth in this fashion, which we might well imitate.

One such recent occasion was the address of Lord Rosebery, on November 16, at Glasgow University, on "The British Empire," wherein he declared that British naval and commercial supremacy would in the new century be challenged by other nations. "It will be a period of keen, intelligent, almost fierce international competition," he declared, "more probably in

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BOOKER T. WASHINGTON.

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CANAL OF PECOS IRRIGATION COMPANY, NEW MEXICO.
Showing the barrenness of the soil when the channel was first cut. [*See page* 252.]

the arts of peace than in the arts of war"; and the English must "become more businesslike and thorough as warriors, merchants, and statesmen, and they must look thoroughly to the training of first-rate men for the struggle ahead." He expressed the opinion that the antiquated methods of training had "almost resulted in commercial disaster, and the time had arrived to reconsider the educational apparatus."

On this same text an earnest sermon ought to be preached in every university, college, technical school, workshop, factory, and commercial house in the United States. Much of our educational work is well directed, but much of it is wasted, — worse than wasted, — because it takes no heed of modern American conditions.

To put the training of men on the low basis of mere commercial results is to degrade education: no well-balanced man would make a plea for a system that left out a well-rounded personal development and the highest ideals. But both can be kept in a training that has an eye single to the development of American character and skill — American as against the world. Vague and indefinite aims, or no aims at all, are the pitfalls of much educational effort. National advancement and supremacy depend now more directly than ever before on the accurately directed education of men.

HOW DEMOCRACY PAYS — LITERALLY

ENGLAND is excited about the inroads that American and German manufacturers are making in her domestic market as well as in her foreign trade. Meetings of many sorts have been held to listen to the explanations of economists and politicians. Most of them have spoken of the natural resources of the United States as one cause, and of the technical education of the Germans as another. But the main cause is the helplessness of the British manufacturer under the tyranny of organized labor.

The American workingman demands good wages and limited hours, but he takes a personal pride in doing as much work as he can, and in acquiring greater skill to increase his output. The British workman has come to take the opposite view and to pride himself on doing the least he can for a given wage. Nearly all the British unions limit the amount of work a man shall do and impose a fine for exceeding it. Under such a system the cost of production is fixed, and fixed by the unions. There is no elasticity. This rigidity of the cost of labor, together with the unions' unwillingness to use improved machinery, has kept English capital from enlarging old plants or building new ones to meet increasing demands and the new conditions of trade.

In the United States the building trades have tried to determine how much a man

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ANOTHER CANAL IN THE SAME DISTRICT.
Showing the spontaneous growth after a few years. [*See page 252.*]

may do within a given time, so far unsuccessfully, thanks no doubt to the intelligence of workmen themselves. A country that pays the highest wages and competes with countries paying the lowest (the cost of the raw materials the same) owes its success to the superior skill and productiveness of its workmen. Arbitrarily limit this productiveness and you check the momentum which is now carrying the United States to a position of commercial supremacy, and much of our increasing opportunity would be lost.

The labor problem presents itself in every country. It is constantly before every employer and every employee. The American manufacturer knows it, but he, in many cases having been an employee himself, keeps close to his men in sympathy and aim and interest. This, at least, is the rule; and, so far as it is the rule, trouble is avoided; for workers there do not so sharply divide themselves into the two classes of the employers and the employed.

The British employer less often comes in personal contact or negotiation with his men. The employing firm is to them an impersonal thing. The classes are more rigidly fixed. Hence it comes about that in a very literal and fundamental sense democracy pays. It is not for Americans to say what the English manufacturers can or shall do to get rid of the misfortunes that are costing them trade, but great American employers and American trade unions may find much to think of in the present plight of their British competitors.

TOO LIBERAL SUFFRAGE IN HAWAII

THE original Cullom bill for the establishment of the United States Territory of Hawaii required that an elector should own $1000 worth of real property or should receive an annual income of $600. This restriction on the suffrage had been tried and proven efficient in protecting the government of Mr. Dole from the corruptibility of the natives before the Islands came under our control. But this property qualification was stricken from the bill, as "un-American." The royalist candidate for Congressional delegate won the recent election over both the Democrat and the Republican candidates, and our government in the Islands has had a direct blow in the face. This royalist delegate-elect, Wilcox, made the impression on the natives that he would do something for the rehabilitation of the monarchy, and proclaimed revenge on the Americans. His record as a revolutionist both against King Kalakaua and the late republic will be brought out in the contest over his seat in Congress. But the local political situation is somewhat serious. The growth of the country in every way since annexation has been remarkable; Honolulu, for instance, having increased in population from 29,000 to

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WILLIAM ZIEGLER.
[See page 256.]

45,000. Through the too early bestowal of a liberal suffrage, all property and hope of progress are at the mercy of a retrogressive electorate. Interference with the existing and thoroughly tried franchise to make it square with the Declaration of Independence was an error in colonial government.

NEWSPAPER MENDACITY

MENDACITY by newspaper correspondents becomes a more serious crime as the range of newspaper reporting increases, and the best newspapers, of course, make the greater effort to engage only truthful men. There is no doubt that their trustworthiness becomes better, but news-gathering is not even yet truthfully organized. The mendacious scoundrel in China who reported the death by torture of the foreign ministers in Pekin last summer was the worst offender perhaps in the whole history of newspaper work; but another correspondent, quite as depraved, was the man who sent despatches from Galveston to several journals for the first week after the disaster. He duped the newspapers and reported harrowing things that never happened, many of which, unlike the Pekin falsehoods, could never be corrected. One difficulty that the public has in knowing what is now going on in China and in our dependent islands is the continually contradictory nature of newspaper despatches. Every great news-gathering journal ought to have, as some of them have, responsible correspondents at such places, whose names shall be published with their despatches. Anonymous reporting is always a temptation to men to accept unverified statements or even to manufacture news, especially in the tropics and in foreign lands.

THE DESTRUCTION OF THE DEWEY ARCH

THE formal abandonment of the plan to make a permanent Dewey arch by the committee who solicited subscriptions for it, simultaneously with the destruction of the temporary arch, which had stood in New York for more than a year, doubtless means the end of that worthy but unlucky enterprise. It is a pity that it failed. The regrettable but pardonable folly of the admiral in declaring himself a presidential candidate went far to cool the enthusiasm of the people — unfortunately and even unjustly. His splendid service is an imperishable part of our history, and he has a firm hold on the national gratitude. But the task of getting money for the arch came unfortunately in the year of a presidential campaign. The sum of $65,000, which had already been collected, is to be returned to the donors; for the committee, after a vigorous effort, was unable to collect $135,000 more, which would have secured another $135,000 that had been conditionally subscribed. The arch will be missed by residents of New York and by thousands of visitors. It was a noble memorial of a great



EVELYN BALDWIN.
[See page 256.]

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achievement. It ought to have been perpetuated, not as a memorial of the battle of Manila only, but made commemorative also of the greater naval victory at Santiago.

MR. KRUEGER IN EUROPE

MR. KRUEGER the Boer leader's visit to Europe, if it would ever have been availing, is pathetically too late. It will only emphasize the advantage, perhaps the duty, of complete surrender by the Boers rather than the continued conduct of guerilla warfare. They are whipped, and the South African Republics have become British colonies. The British may yet lose men and may reduce parts of the country to desolation. But it is too late for the Boers to hope for intervention. The sympathy of great masses of people they have had and will have, but not the help of any government. Mr. Krueger's reception in France amounted to nothing more than a pious exercise of the French emotions in shouting sympathy with an enemy of England. The snubs that he received from the Emperors of Germany and Austria were what he must have known he would receive. The old man wept. He is, indeed, a pathetic figure. But nothing is left to him but a retired life in Holland, where, if reports are true, he may pass the rest of his days very comfortably on the large treasure that he is said to have taken with him from Africa.

THE PARTIES IN ENGLISH POLITICS

IN one respect the condition of political parties in England and in the United States is alike: the Liberals there and the Democrats here have lacked both an issue and a leader. In England the Conservatives, owing to the war in Africa, for the first time since the Reform Bill won two successive general elections. But the fortunes of the Liber-



Photographed by W. S. Pulsford.

A NIGHT VIEW OF THE DEWEY ARCH (shortly before its final destruction was begun).

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als there, as of the Democrats here, have probably now seen their lowest ebb. In the present session of Parliament which began on December 3 they are likely to find themselves oversupplied with issues and leaders. In the time of great disaster, the whole nation rallied to the Government's support. But now embarrassments thicken. The war drags on exasperatingly, and Sir Michael Hicks-Beach has announced that there is no present hope of tax reduction; even, after the fighting is over, the army must be brought home again, at great expense, and the war debt paid. The



EVELYN BARING, LORD CROMER.
[See page 359.]

policy of the Government in South Africa is certain also to be vigorously attacked. To stamp out a guerilla warfare is a hard task, particularly for a humane nation. Lord Kitchener is certainly the right man for that kind of work; but war is at best a barbarous and cruel thing, and the newspaper correspondent sees everything nowadays. How is England going to receive the policy of pacification by devastation? Moreover, there is the question of the political wisdom of such a course. Boer and Briton have got to live together in South Africa; the condition of Cape Colony is even now none too good; and under the circumstances conciliation might pay better than too many blows. The Conservative party may yet find the Transvaal a shirt of Nessus.

THE LONG-DRAWN-OUT CHINESE TROUBLE

IN Pekin, the foreign Ministers first drew up an agreement which the Powers could not accept, and the opening of negotiations were further postponed while the Governments exchanged views. The demands decided on by the Ministers are: a monument to Baron von Ketteler and apology made in Germany by an imperial prince; the execution of eleven high officers; provincial examinations to be suspended for five years; where outrages occurred, dismissal and punishment for officials permitting future disorders; indemnities to States, corporations, and individuals; a Foreign Minister in the place of the Tsung-li-yamen; rational access to the Emperor; the razing of the Taku and Chih-li forts; prohibition of the importation of arms; resident legation guards; and posted proclamations against the Boxers for two years.

Some of these provisions are far from having the approval of our Government, and our ambassadors were instructed to communicate the fact to the various Foreign Offices. For some days there was grave anxiety, and talk was heard of withdrawing the negotiations entirely from Pekin, where feeling against China was too heated to give moderate counsels much show, and where it was felt that Mr. Conger was not in full sympathy with the other Ministers. The replies of the foreign Governments greatly relieved this anxiety. Only Germany seemed inclined to stand out for the entire list of demands, and milder counsels prevailed at the German court.

This must be regarded as another signal victory for Mr. Hay. The demands of the Powers were defeating themselves. No one could expect the princes named for decapitation to present themselves voluntarily for the process, and they are probably stronger than the native Government. By imposing impossible conditions the allies were simply forcing on war, and that could hardly have failed to bring the dismemberment of China.

If the Chinese Government is given a reasonable chance in this matter of punishments, there seems now only one obstacle in the way

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of a satisfactory settlement of the present troubles; but that obstacle is a tremendous one. From the beginning it has been plain that the crux of the whole problem would be the question of indemnity. The bill for the military expenses of the allies is reaching mammoth proportions, and it will all be presented to China unless the situation can be given a new turn. Germany allows her officers five times their regular pay, and does everything in the munificent manner which goes naturally with spending somebody else's money. But China cannot pay a heavy indemnity unless the management of the finances is put in foreign hands. It is hard to see how this can be done without paving the way to practical control of the internal affairs of the nation. Unless the Powers which are sincerely interested in preserving the "administrative and territorial integrity" of China can keep the figure low, this indemnity matter may bring all our past efforts to naught.

What is going on in China itself, except in the parts held by foreigners, it is quite impossible to say. The course of events equals a French farce for complications and a melodrama for revolutions and surprises. Concerning the doings and intentions of the Government a cloud of contradictory rumors thickens in the newspaper despatches. A reiterated report comes that Emperor Kwang-su will return soon to Pekin; it is the best of news, if true. But contradictions multiply. Yu-Hsien, having committed suicide twice, is now to be executed; Prince Tuan and Tung-Fuh-Siang have raised a rebellion, are in custody, have fled, control the movements of the court. The absence of accurate information suggests the question whether more could not be done to open avenues of reliable information. If Russia has not eyes and ears at the Chinese court, it would be very surprising; but no news leaks from that source for the benefit of the allies. To the rest of the world Egyptian darkness could not compare with the impenetrability of Chinese diplomacy.

It appears, however, as though a genuine effort had been made to placate the Powers in the matter of punishments — certainly an embarrassing undertaking for a fugitive and shaken central authority when some of the criminals are powerful chieftains at the head of military forces. Yet the council of envoys at Pekin has not been satisfied. Meanwhile aggressive military operations have been continued under Count von Waldersee's direction, by expeditions radiating from the capital. At this distance some of these movements seem quite purposeless; it is possible that in one or two cases at least they may carry relief to isolated missionary parties. But some have a very evident object. To pursue the court would be very hard; but it might be starved out by cutting off the supplies sent from the south and west. If it should come to war, it is very probable that this method, successful once before in China, would be that employed to bring to terms the Empress Dowager and her party.

But as this record closes, the dominant Powers seem agreed on a less severe policy than the Ministers in Pekin outlined. The United States surely will not change its course; and there is hope that the long-drawn-out and troublesome problem may yet reach peaceful solution.

"LITERATURE" AND LITERATURE

A LITERARY man has written to THE WORLD'S WORK, saying: —

"There is too little literature in the magazine. It ought to have literary essays and pleasant chat about books and short stories and poems."

A professional man, who has read the great books of the world, has written: —

"Thank Heaven that one magazine is bold enough to emancipate itself from 'literature'!"

These gentlemen put different meanings on the word 'literature.' One regards it as criticism, as essays about books and about men who write books. The other regards it as great books themselves; and he looks upon most current criticism as something done at second hand.

And the second gentleman is right in his judgment; for an honest effort at a piece of constructive work, even if the result be a dull novel or an uninspired poem, or a commonplace history, — any book written straight out of life or out of observation of life, — is a better thing in the world than an essay about a book that is already written and published and may itself be read, unless such an essay come from a great man who has had a wide experience both in life and in literature, and has himself constructed a first-hand book.

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In discussing literature and in studying it, there are two aims. One aim is to broaden the horizon, to fill the mind, to grow — the aim of personal culture. So to read literature is every man's bounden duty. But the way to do this is so easy that many men never find it out. It is simply to read the great books of the world, especially the great books in our own language — to read them intelligently, diligently, lovingly, and to re-read them, and not to make the mistake of reading about them. When a man has read Shakspere once a year for half a lifetime, or Wordsworth, or Thackeray, or Mark Twain, or Kipling's "Seven Seas" half-a-dozen times, why on earth should he waste his time in reading what some other man (who has probably read these same writers less often and less well than he) has to say about them? The unfortunate truth is, most persons who accept criticism and read literary essays do not read great books; and here is where the damage is done. A man that is willing to surrender his own judgment to another's soon loses his judgment, and he then loses his stomach for vigorous literature and becomes content to feed on second-hand things. Since most literary essays are second-hand products but are accepted as short-cuts to a knowledge of literature, they do positive harm by keeping well-meaning persons away from literature. There is reason to fear, for instance, that more women have listened to lectures on Browning and read essays about him than ever read Browning himself. The intellectual life is not helped by literary essays and criticisms — except the very few great essays by great constructive minds. Writing them and reading them is a dissipating and enervating waste of time.

The other aim of sane and vigorous literary discussion and study is to promote the production of literature — to encourage the constructive impulse, to get men in the mood to write things.

The groups of men and women who lecture about literature and who listen to lectures, kill the creative impulse in one another and in most young persons who come under their influence. A man or a journal that has an ambition to make Literature, or to encourage the making of it, runs plump against the fact that in our time and our country the most powerful discouragements come from the critical literary class, if it may be said that we have a literary class. In England, it is said, many young literary men succumb to social influence. When society pays attention to a new writer, he runs a grave risk of losing the independence and freshness of mind that constitute his literary capital. In the United States a writer who falls under the influence of our *dilettanti* is likely to cease to grow. Most of our writers now past middle life are doing less good work than they did in early life for this reason, — they have fallen into a despondent critical mood; and in this mood they mistake criticism for creation, and put an undue value on contemporary judgments.

If there were no other proof that our professional guardians of literature are the unconscious enemies of the very thing that they mean to encourage, proof enough is found in this single fact, — that most of them are men who are themselves hopeless about American civilization. To them the future seems dark. Out of despondency literature never yet grew.

If a man wish to add to our Literature, he can afford to neglect every book-about-books that was ever written in America. Indeed, after he has passed his schoolboy period he cannot afford to read them, nor can he afford to pay heed to the criticism of despondency. If he fall into the mood of despair about democratic institutions and learn to sneer, he may make a career as a critic and lose his own soul, but he can add nothing to the creative impulse of his time.

Perhaps every maker of literature, whenever he lived, has been obliged for his own salvation to keep aloof from the critical literary class of his time. Certainly most literary men have done so during their productive periods. But, whatever may be true about the past, the hope of American literature now is not in men who produce or who feed on literary criticism and literary essays. A man who wishes to write something at first hand will do better to play golf than to read current literary essays; for golf is cheerful and takes one outdoors. And two of the great qualities that have gone to the making of the literature of our race are cheerfulness and a love of outdoor life. As soon as you get a literary cult and a mere bookish life, you are in a fair way to get literary cant and "despair of the republic."

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A man who would make American literature now must feel, as all the greatest literary men of our race have felt, from Chaucer to Kipling and Mark Twain, a keen common interest in all kinds of men, and a kinship with them; and he must know and feel the strong positive forces of our life. Most of all, he must have mental health and hope. He must know (and if he have a fresh outdoor mind he will know) that it is out of a new national impulse that literature comes into being — just such an impulse as the United States now feels. That this impulse expresses itself chiefly in commercial ways is natural; but the impulse itself is worth a thousandfold more than its direct commercial results.

About commercial results for their own sake THE WORLD'S WORK cares less than it cares for anything else on earth; about literature and its production it cares more than for all other things put together. For that reason it welcomes the new impulse and hopes to do contemporary literature what service it can by direct encouragement It is out of action, hope, achievement — the doing of things — that the independence of mind comes which feels the constructive impulse — never out of despair, or hesitancy, or second-hand opinions. The first step towards such an independence of mind is to emancipate one's self from the critical professionalism of the "literary" class to which our friend belongs who thinks that there is some helpful connection between Literature and "literary essays, and pleasant chat about books." These are the tin-soldiery of Literature.

As for "short stories and poems," the man who does not get enough of these things must live in an inaccessible cavern on an undiscovered island in an unknown sea.

THE SUCCESSION OF ART-FADS

THE close of Oscar Wilde's pathetic career calls to mind one of those curious spasms of affectation which from time to time manifest themselves in the development of artistic taste. We are going through one of them now, if the silly illustrations of some of the magazines and popular books are to be trusted as good evidence. A fad — in Wilde's case a sunflower and a couple of cat-tails were the poor foundation — sweeps over the art of a country with a sort of blight. Permanent ideals of æsthetic perfection are overcast, and our eyes are for a while offended or pleased, as the case may be, with monstrosities in form and color, staring at us in public buildings, street cars, railway coaches, until the eye grows too weary to endure it longer and reaction ensues. These *poseurs*, preying upon the enthusiasms of little minds, thus have their day and disappear. But the poverty-stricken idealists we have always with us, and it is only when we see them in a procession of decayed sovereignties, as it were, that we realize the permanence of human folly in artistic matters. The days of the present one must be nearly over: we are getting pretty tired of symbolic flatnesses, crude color-contrasts, and mediæval monstrosities. The doctrine of the significance of form in the hands of the present fad-makers has already produced something like a riot of formlessness.

THE VALUE OF A GOOD ROAD

THE Interstate Good Roads Association, at its recent meeting in Chicago, outlined a big campaign. It asked Congress for $150,000 a year, to be spent by the Agricultural Department in educating the people about roads. A national committee was appointed to promote good roads legislation in every state, and to carry on a system of public instruction about the need of good roads and about methods of building them. The post office department was asked to make good roads the first condition of granting free rural delivery. The convention was not a big meeting, but in this work a few men have had a great influence. The subject is more important than it is interesting to reporters and essayists. It is more important, in fact, than most subjects, religious or secular, that conventions of men and women meet to discuss; for a man that in any way helps to build a good road where a bad one ran, does a greater service to his kind, and builds a more lasting monument, than the man who writes a historical novel, for instance, or who sends a missionary to China; for a good road will outlast a bad book, and give to Christian character serenity and continuity.

THE GROWTH OF PUBLIC SCHOOLS

THE new Report of the National Bureau of Education shows the growth of the public schools during the last thirty years —

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a growth that has been gratifying in most parts of the Union, but in some rather slow. The total expenditure for public schools in 1899 was more than $187,000,000; in 1870 it was $69,000,000; and the per capita expenditure of the whole population was respectively $1.75 and $2.67.

COMPARATIVE EXPENDITURE AND ATTENDANCE ON PUBLIC SCHOOLS IN 1870 AND IN 1899

States	Expended per Capita for Public Schools		Per Cent of School Population (5 and 18) attending School	
North Atlantic	**1870**	**1899**	**1870**	**1899**
Maine	$1.51	$2.30	87.35	81.45
New Hampshire	1.30	2.59	91.31	72.18
Vermont	1.51	2.96	——	81.88
Massachusetts	3.73	5.07	72.34	75.28
Rhode Island	2.05	3.74	59.24	63.07
Connecticut	2.74	3.51	80.83	72.32
New York	2.17	4.03	82.98	68.93
New Jersey	2.48	3.12	63.20	65.29
Pennsylvania	2.36	3.21	76.35	67.21
South Atlantic				
Delaware	1.21	1.63	50.04	67.93
Maryland	1.53	2.38	46.70	64.12
Dist. Columbia	2.77	3.92	41.60	61.24
Virginia	.47	1.15	32.34	61.04
West Virginia	1.26	2.36	49.47	81.10
North Carolina	.16	.53	31.23	62.39
South Carolina	.38	.59	27.28	55.40
Georgia	.24	.91	11.89	61.09
Florida	.66	1.30	21.21	63.37
South Central				
Kentucky	.80	1.31	——	76.
Tennessee	.59	.83	32.	74.62
Alabama	.36	.46	40.36	67.58
Mississippi	1.11	.81	40.60	60.17
Louisiana	.71	.79	24.78	40.57
Texas	.74	1.49	21.	52.22
Arkansas	1.02	.98	40.29	64.27
Oklahoma	——	1.68	——	79.84
North Central				
Ohio	2.52	3.21	84.04	73.88
Indiana	1.70	3.02	78.64	83.33
Illinois	2.57	3.49	81.01	66.07
Michigan	2.33	2.57	79.66	78.56
Wisconsin	1.70	2.44	73.92	69.25
Minnesota	2.66	2.82	75.92	72.38
Iowa	2.70	3.80	81.44	87.56
Missouri	.99	2.30	56.03	70.12
North Dakota	1.29	3.66	39.26	70.05
South Dakota		3.52		73.73
Nebraska	2.61	3.21	58.76	77.62
Kansas	2.24	3.00	74.22	88.20
Western				
Montana	1.62	3.16	70.24	78.04
Wyoming	.71	1.90	45.34	54.46
Colorado	1.44	3.70	42.28	80.12
New Mexico	.05	.85	4.42	52.24
Arizona	0	2.60	0	68.17
Utah	1.28	3.69	53.36	82.54
Nevada	1.93	4.96	53.07	81.78
Idaho	1.17	1.75	46.06	76.82
Washington	1.30	3.86	69.	91.42
Oregon	1.65	3.07	67.73	86.80
California	2.93	4.09	63.64	70.05

Massachusetts continues to pay the highest per capita rate for public schools ($5.07), North Carolina the lowest (53 cents). Many of the Southern states show substantial even if slow progress; but Mississippi and Arkansas show a decreased per capita expenditure these thirty years.

Such a table can, of course, tell nothing of the very great advance that has been made in method and efficiency.

REVIVED ACTIVITY ON THE PACIFIC COAST

THE country on the Pacific slope has entered a new period of activity which promises the magnificent destiny that it hoped long ago to work out. Early in this decade industrial progress there halted; the cities refused to grow; immigration to the rural districts became less; opportunities for labor and capital were hard to find; good harbors were only half filled with masts and stacks; and growing fruit at low prices and the care of invalids seemed likely to remain the chief industries. But in the last two years a change has come. The Alaskan gold discoveries brought activity and prosperity on Puget Sound; and every commercial enterprise on the Pacific coast has been helped by the extension of American influence in the Orient and the enormous growth of American foreign trade.

Seven hundred sawmills are now running at full time in the three Pacific states; a bountiful fruit crop has been gathered and sold at the best prices obtained for years; from San Diego to Seattle the harbors are crowded with shipping, which brings good profits to the owners of vessels; and in all parts of the world shipyards are building hulls for the Pacific trade. In the crowded harbor of San Francisco, with its seven miles of docks, ships anchor amidstream, awaiting their turn to receive or to discharge cargo; and long-delayed plans for reclaiming vast tracts of arid land have been taken up again to supply the needs of incoming settlers and the enlarging activities of the pioneers. All that is needed now, in the opinion of the people of the Pacific coast, to make their commercial position permanently secure, is the cutting of the isthmian canal.

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BUILDING THE NEW NAVY

THERE is no more encouraging note in the whole chorus of American industry than that which comes from the shipyards. The building of modern ships, particularly the building of naval ships, is perhaps the most far-reaching problem before the American branch of the industry. The marked naval growth of the last ten years in the world at large reaches this year its highest mark in this country. When work is begun upon the five new battleships and six armored cruisers which have been added only recently to the list, the United States will have more naval ships building and to be built than any other government. Even in tables showing the percentage of increase in naval budgets during the last ten years this government takes place only second to Russia. The Russian budget was last year four times as great as it was ten years ago, our own was trebled, as was Germany's, while even the British were forced by competition to appropriate twice as much as in 1889.

This great world movement of navy building has been accompanied by a phenomenal growth and increase in the yards of the United States during the last two years which can point to but one end. Shipbuilders are to follow the lead of the flag out into the world and claim their old-time share of the profits of the sea. And further, far beyond the old-time prowess of the sailing clipper builders, they are making ready to furnish foreign navies with marvels of sea fighters from monster warships down to venomous little torpedo boats. The times were ripe for our reappearance as shipbuilders for the world at large. For while we still maintained our old position as the second of shipbuilding countries, our output had decreased from one-third of all the tonnage built annually to one-eighth. Great Britain had secured all the work lost to us since 1861, but Germany was making a great effort to pass us on the list. In 1899 Great Britain built 1,731,543 tons, the United States only 267,600 tons, and Germany 260,000 tons.

The chief cause for the loss of prestige by shipyards here was the change from the use of wood to iron and steel. This found builders everywhere unable to cope with British competition. The industry here had its birth in the prodigal richness with which American forests furnished shipbuilding material. When the world turned its back on these it went to the furnaces and metal workers of England, at that time far in advance of similar development elsewhere. But even after there had been progress here in steel and iron industries second to none, their adaptation to sea work seemed for some time deferred. Even now the awakened craft must face terrific competition abroad and growing difficulties at home. It seems hard that simultaneously with this outreaching of Yankee shipyards for the shipbuilding of the world, the price of steel for plates should have advanced nearly 20% from 1898 to 1899, accompanied by an even greater increase in other necessary products. Labor here is also higher than in England, although up to this time there has been less trouble with the unions which have so disturbed work there for the past three years. In regard to shipbuilding materials, however, it seems easily proven that the United States can, under normal conditions, produce them at less cost than Great Britain.

Undoubtedly the new impetus given to American naval shipbuilding dates from the birth of the new navy in 1882. Since then, forty vessels have been added, with very few exceptions entirely American in their planning and building. This is a wonderful output for twenty years of work, but it will be easily eclipsed in the next few years. There are now seventy ships building for the navy, and contracts for eleven more are now being made. It was only in 1880 that a well-known American, responding to the toast "Our Navy," said: "If the length of my reply is to be governed by the size of our navy, I have already said too much." He or those about him could scarcely have foreseen that in 1900

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we would have a navy of which no nation could fail to be proud.

The shipyards of the country have grown in size and number as the building of the navy progressed, and in direct consequence of contracts awarded by the government. In fact, in one instance, a very promising plant, the William R. Trigg Company, of Richmond, Va., was organized after its bids for the construction of three torpedo boats and two destroyers were successful. This was in the summer of 1898. Within six months work had been begun and two hundred men were employed. Now there are over eight hundred employees, twenty-five additional acres of ground have been secured, and every indication points to the early development of a shipyard of the first-class. This is only an example of the development and enlargement of the yards everywhere following upon the awards of contracts now in the course of fulfilment. All over the country, except on the Great Lakes, where treaty stipulations prevent, are distributed contracts for building large and small craft, torpedo boats, torpedo-boat destroyers, and so on, which go to make up seventy vessels in all building.

There is ample evidence to be had in the trade journals and elsewhere that all of the 325 shipyards in the United States are taking part in this marked revival of trade. There seems a widespread movement for the building of new and better shops, for the addition of increased power plants, and a general extension of the scope of work formerly done. The starting of new companies is the best evidence of the prosperity of the old, and the mere fact that more than $20,000,000 is invested in shipyards which have been planned and begun within the past two years shows of itself the outreaching growth of the industry. Of the $70,000,000 worth of tonnage now building in this country, which price is exclusive of the cost of armor and armament, the Navy Department will pay $35,000,000, and the Russian government for the two vessels building at the Cramps' $5,000,000.

The fine old story of the United States navy has begun a new chapter. And it is cause for tremendous satisfaction that the new has proven so far fully worthy of the old. No easy standard had been set. At the very beginning of the century, in reviewing an American squadron, Lord Nelson said, "There is in the handling of those transatlantic ships a nucleus of trouble for the navy of Great Britain." That trouble came with terrific verity in 1812, when the greatest of Old World sea powers, built up through long years of uncounted cost in experience and expenditure, promised to be suddenly and easily shattered by the stripling navy of the New. Even if he seldom mentions it, no Englishman ever forgets that in seven months five hundred British merchantmen and three frigates surrendered, while not a single American frigate struck her flag. This memory makes particularly useful the English view of the work of our navy builders of to-day. It is so sure to be jealously just.

"Nauticus," an eminent British naval authority, speaking in the *Fortnightly Review*, makes some interesting comparisons of our battleships with those of the French and British. Speaking of the *Iowa* and *Indiana*, he says: —

"I have observed that they compare unfavorably in the matter of speed with such ships of the same class as the *Renown* [British] and the *Jauréguiberry* [French], but in almost every other respect they seem to me to be immeasurably, nay crushingly, superior. But I do not regard speed as of great importance to the battleship. What, for example, could be the value in practice of the *Renown's* superior speed as against that of the *Indiana?* It might, it is true, enable the *Renown* to force action, but with an opponent so greatly superior in gun-fire our ship could scarcely hope, other things being equal, to achieve success. If the two ships were engaged bow to bow, stern to stern, or bow to stern, the United States ship could deal blows much more numerous than those of the British ship, and in the aggregate nearly twice as heavy. Even if they engaged broadside to broadside, the aggregate energy of the American fire would be much more than double that of the British. But with our huge *Royal Sovereign* or our great *Prince George* as our champion, we would not fare much better, for the Americans distribute their guns much more advantageously than we do. In the War of 1812 we were obliged, much against our will, to take lessons from the United States on the proper way of gunning frigates. We might do worse now than take lessons from the United States on the proper way of gunning battleships; and also of gunning cruisers, for American cruisers are as superior to ours as American battleships are."

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The unrestrained indorsements of American naval workers, the men who design and the men who construct, coming from such sources, are enough to fire them on to further achievement. Such comment as this naturally points to a widening of shipbuilding here which it never had in the days of its former supremacy. This is the building of fighting ships for foreign countries. The Russian and Japanese ships built and building at the Cramp yard in Philadelphia and the Union Iron Works of San Francisco are the direct triumph of just this superiority in our modern navy over all manner of subtle intrigue and influence exerted in behalf of foreign shipbuilders. The Japanese cruisers, the *Chitose*, built at San Francisco, and the *Kasagi*, built at Philadelphia, are already fit examples in their class of American achievement. Great things are promised and expected of the first-class Russian battleship *Retvizan* in construction at the Cramp yard. It is a terrific warrior, expected, in spite of its 12,750 tons, to maintain a speed of eighteen knots. The Russian commerce destroyer *Varyag*, from the same builders, 6000 tons, is a veritable huntsman of the sea, going twenty-three knots when on a trail. Newspaper announcements tell us that the placing of a contract for a Turkish cruiser with American builders is imminent.

An entrance into this field of the work carries with it the necessity of not only extending the credit of American commercial probity, but of proving a still greater power in the sphere of international finance. Let a government announce a projected increase in its navy, and within twenty-four hours great long-reaching arms of financial influence and diplomatic intrigue will be set in motion for furthering the claims of contesting bidders. It was the writer's fortune to see such a contest during diplomatic residence in a European capital. The Government decided to increase its navy. The statement of this intention was not a day old before all manner of activity had begun. The largest of the British shipyards keep a permanent agent at every capital for just such emergencies. Naturally these were first at the offices of the Ministry of Marine, but they were soon followed by others — all prepared to move the earth for success. Before a month had passed the contest had climbed up from the hands of these agents, through their chiefs, to the heads of great banks and financial powers generally which had influence in that country, on to the very ambassadors themselves. To secure contracts amounting to less than $5,000,000 it was not thought undignified for the embassies to enter the scramble in behalf of their respective shipyards. And, as one knew well that many ministry men and even palace officials had to be "propitiated" by the successful contestant, one wondered if some scheme of profit-sharing had not been arranged as a reward for ambassadorial activities.

Even these mighty instruments failed to secure a settlement of the contest for months, and all who understood its scope looked on in wondering interest. There was missing no influence which could possibly be brought to bear from any quarter of the globe in favor of either of the bidders to whom the contest finally narrowed down. Diplomatic concessions were solemnly if unofficially offered by cabinets in return for the awarding of the work to their builders. And when it finally looked as if one country was to secure the work, when thousands upon thousands had been spent in "facilitation," suddenly came the announcement that the emperor of one of the contesting countries was coming on a visit. Of course some public reason of congratulation or condolence was given for this expedition. But commonly it was known that the imperial guest spent by far the larger portion of his time in arguing the superiority of his home shipbuilders; and, what is more to the point, he proved an excellent commercial traveller, and went home with the orders in his pocket.

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GREAT IRRIGATION ENTERPRISES

THE United States still owns 600,000,000 acres of vacant public land, of which 374,000,000 are good for grazing, 96,000,000 will yield fuel and fence timber, and 70,000,000 timber of commercial value, and 60,000,000 are yet desert. These are the facts officially given out at the meeting of the National Irrigation Association in Chicago in November.

There is water enough to turn between 75,000,000 and 100,000,000 acres of grazing land into farm land, if this water can be properly distributed. The average size of an irrigated farm is forty acres. The arid states alone, then, have room (five persons to a farm) for an increase of more than 10,000,000 to the agricultural population. The reclamation of this arid land, it is estimated, would give a livelihood to 50,000,000 more persons than the United States can accommodate comfortably under present conditions.

But large capital is needed to carry out the irrigation plans now most discussed. Irrigating work on a small scale has generally been successful, but the larger investment has not paid. The Association asks government aid to build reservoirs to make the arid spaces available for homesteaders. They wish Congress to declare the title to all water not yet appropriated as forever resting in the government.

When Congress asks government experts for advice as to when and where to commence work, they will recommend an appropriation of $1,000,000 for a dam across the Gila River near San Carlos, in Arizona, and $2,000,000, more or less, to turn the waters of St. Mary River in Montana from their natural course toward Hudson Bay into the tributaries of the Missouri River. These are two great irrigation plans which affect areas that may become populous states.

The Gila River rises in New Mexico and flows easterly across southern Arizona through a country now occupied in part by the peaceful Indians. As the country has become settled, the lands held by the Indians have been reduced to a reservation in the centre of the valley. The whites, especially the Mormons, have taken up lands above them, and have, with large ditches, drawn all of the water from the river during seasons of scarcity, so the Indians can no longer cultivate the soil, and have in effect become paupers. Enough water can be secured by storing the floods of the Gila. Storage on a large scale only is practicable, and the needed dam and reservoir will cost about $1,000,000. This will supply water not only for the 150,000 acres of arable land owned by the Indians, but also for over 100,000 acres of vacant public lands, so that the first cost of the reservoir can be reimbursed from subsequent settlement.

The other project, in Montana, is to divert water which now flows from the Rocky Mountains northerly into Canada by way of the St. Mary River, taking it out of the river before it reaches the international boundary, carrying it many miles to the east, and filling up the tributaries of the Missouri River at a season when they are now almost entirely dry — in effect taking the stream from our northern neighbors. St. Mary River rises in northern Montana, starting from the Blackfoot glaciers and receiving effluents from several others, and flows into a lake known as the Upper St. Mary Lake, below which is the Lower St. Mary Lake, the two separated only by a narrow strip of land. St. Mary River flows out of the lower lake, and within a short distance is joined by a stream equally as large, known as the Swiftcurrent River. From the confluence of these streams to the northern boundary of the United States the river flows in a northerly direction for a distance of ten or twelve miles.

Milk River heads on the eastern slope of the great ridge which separates the St. Mary from the Milk River, or, more properly speaking, the Missouri drainage. The streams flowing from this ridge are small and carry but little water, running through prairie almost from their start. The Milk River flows into Canada and reenters the United States about one hundred miles east of its first crossing of

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the boundary. There is very little water in this stream during the irrigation season.

Government engineers declare it practicable to divert the water from St. Mary River a short distance below the outlet of the lower lake. It can then be carried eastward till it turns its water into Sage Creek, a lower tributary of Milk River, thence on to the Missouri.

The canal that it is proposed to cut would make available all the land it could supply with water, besides turning many dry river-beds into flowing streams. While it would reclaim several hundred thousand acres of land for settlement, this would not be its only result, for it would render habitable a vast area of country, fertile but now arid, and unlock the door to the natural wealth of a region greater in extent than many of the states.

THE NEW YALE

BY

HERBERT A. SMITH

THE election of President Hadley less than two years ago was generally accepted as meaning that another chapter in the history of Yale had been begun. It was thought especially significant that the man chosen to be the head of the university when it should enter its third century was still a young man, that he was an investigator and scholar of the modern type, trained in Germany as well as in his college, and that he was not a clergyman — the first layman to occupy the presidency. His candidacy received the support of the body of the alumni and of the faculty; but the greatest enthusiasm for him was among the younger men; and some ultra-conservatives were for a time not without forebodings that too wide a departure from the lines of Yale's past development might follow his election.

In the past, the most valuable characteristic of the training received at Yale has been that it makes a man socially useful. The typical Yale man is a man of high ideals, and at the same time practical, American, democratic. Intellectual isolation and ineffectiveness are not qualities which flourish in her atmosphere.

But many changes have come over college life in the last few years. Some of these are due to new social conditions, some to new educational requirements and opportunities. The old Yale of the brick row, of plain living, of narrow curriculum, and severe discipline is left behind. American life is no longer what it was forty years ago. During the same period the intellectual world has been revolutionized. Both these facts have profoundly affected the colleges. Are they likely to affect the broad result on character of college life?

There are many ideals of what a university should be. One is the ideal of a place where everything that is known is taught, and where new knowledge is being discovered; a place where specialists are trained. Another is that of a place where gentlemen gather for the leisurely pursuit of that liberal culture which is the possession of the finest aristocracy — the aristocracy of intellect. Another is that of a place where each student gains the fullest development of his individuality — where personalities are set free. But no one has emphasized so strongly as President Hadley the conception of the university as a place for the making of citizens, for training men to public service, to social usefulness. Whatever changes in college life and in educational methods may come, the aim of Yale is to continue to do what it has been doing in the past.

The duties which have fallen to Yale's new president were determined by the position which the institution had reached when he succeeded to the office. The last fifteen years have been years of rapid growth. The old brick row of dormitories and recitation buildings has melted away before the quadrangle — the evidence of freer student expenditure and larger needs of instruction. In 1880 there were 612 college undergraduates; in 1890, 832; in 1899, 1224. The colle-

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giate faculty in the same years numbered respectively 30, 53, and 113. Twenty years ago the academical course was almost wholly prescribed; in 1890, two-thirds prescribed, with 119 elective courses open for the remainder of the work; this year there are 273 undergraduate elective courses, with rigidly required work limited to Freshman and three hours of Junior year. No Sophomore now has to take either Latin, Greek, or Mathematics.

Meanwhile around the college has formed the university. The change in corporate name was made in 1886. At that time the number of buildings was 31; there are now 46. The endowment in the former year was about $2,200,000; in 1900, over $5,300,000.

President Dwight's accession to the presidency in 1886 was at the end of an epoch. The old system of prescribed studies throughout the academical course had given way for the upper classes in 1884. The antiquated fashion of electing tutors on their general scholarship record, and afterwards assigning them to teach whatever subject happened to be needed, continued nearly to the end of President Porter's administration. The number of students began to leap upwards in 1886. In 1835, 135 men entered the academical department; in 1885, 134; during these fifty years the largest class numbered 149. Since the fall of 1887 no class has entered with less than 200 men, and the present size approaches 350.

In the Sheffield Scientific School the Freshman class in 1884 numbered 81; in 1891, 200. The entire University contained in 1880 about 1000 students, in 1890, 1600, and at the present time over 2500.

Three things, then, stand out regarding the last fifteen years of Yale's history: that they have been characterized by a great increase in the number of students, a great increase in the range of studies, and a great increase in the endowment and number of buildings.

The last fact is partly, but not wholly, the result of the first two. It takes a larger endowment to do the same work now than a half century ago; salaries are (fortunately) higher, and return on investments lower. Besides, a higher standard of living, in the community at large, has made necessary better student accommodations. Two generations ago, students generally sawed their own wood, threw slops out of the window, and were strangers to the luxury of a carpet. In dormitories of the old brick row, cold water ran from one faucet on the ground floor and was carried upstairs by the students themselves, unless they paid for extra services. Dormitories are now supplied with private bath-rooms on each floor. The barn-like, unventilated, poorly lighted recitation-room of not so long ago is now recognized as unequal to modern demands. Spartan manners have gone the way of two-dollar board and morning chapel by candle-light; the money outlay of the college for each student received has greatly increased, and not all of the difference goes for laboratories and specialized teaching.

The result has been just the same at Yale as at other colleges; her financial needs have been far in excess of her means, and has made the question of increasing the endowment an urgent one. President Eliot is reported to have said that Yale was doing more with less money than any other university in the country. With all the additions which recent years have brought to Yale's funds and equipment, her resources are still unequal to the demands upon them.

The great increase in the size of classes during the last fifteen years is only part of a general movement, affecting other universities and colleges as well, and due to the widening of what may be called the college *clientèle*. It is now the proper thing for a young man whose parents are in easy circumstances to go to college, quite irrespective of the possession of scholarly tastes or an intention to enter one of the learned professions. The advantage which he seeks is primarily social, not scholastic. "A large part of the education which is obtained by the students of the universities," said President Hadley, recently, "is that which they themselves give to one another. This is true to a large degree in matters of intellect. It is true to an overwhelming degree in matters of sentiment and public spirit."

The increase in the number of students in the university, and the increase in the material resources of the university, have been, to the outsider, the most impressive changes in the evolution of the modern university from the old college. But in reality, the change

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from the old curriculum of required studies to the elective system is far more epoch-making. Any one who will read the course of study printed in the Yale catalogue for 1883–1884 will probably rub his eyes in astonishment. It seems hardly to belong to the present century. All seniors were required to take a course in Moral Philosophy, the text-books for which are given as Butler's "Sermons" and Hopkins's "Law of Love." The study of Natural Theology and Evidences of Christianity was also required. Of Mental Philosophy a staggering dose was administered. A good deal of natural science was included in the course, but the method of teaching was, as a rule, severely mathematical. In the field of science, freedom of teaching was not always absolute.

It is now possible for the student to know something of everything and everything of something — if he wants to. When the change from the old system of required work was made it was hoped by some, and feared by others, that the result would be to make all students specialists. Both hope and fear have been disappointed. It is now plain that, whatever a free elective system does, it does not turn out, save in exceptional cases, either highly trained men or one-sidedly educated men. Indeed, it might almost be said that, in New Haven at least, the chief advantage of a wide range of electives has been to provide for exceptional cases. The average student follows a well-beaten path to general culture by way of a small number of popular courses. On the whole, it may be said that college education, after having been excessively scholastic, has been humanized again by the elective system.

But it must not be supposed that because the college educational system has modernized itself by giving up the old requirements it has arrived at a state of perfection. Never was there a greater opportunity for service in educational leadership at Yale than at the present time. There is a disposition nowadays to regard the duties of a college president as chiefly administrative and financial. Yale has done well not to fall into the mistake of putting a pure man of affairs at the head of a great university. For many questions press for settlement which a man unfamiliar with educational problems and methods would be unprepared to deal with. There is the question of the relation of the college course to professional and technical work, and of its relation to secondary education and the public school system. There are questions of university organization, and of teaching methods. And all are important. College education is now rich in culture, but is given too little power. Easy lecture courses are crowded, and work is superficially done. The capacity for sharp, hard thinking is too little developed; students graduate miscellaneously informed, but immature and of flabby intellectual fibre. The college must educate in the world of modern thought, but it must prepare for the hard battle of strenuous life.

During the year and a quarter of President Hadley's administration he has shown himself a tactful and unifying, not a masterful and overbearing, leader. The task of the college president is now no easy one. There are always two parties in every faculty, and the official head is pretty sure to offend either one or the other, if he does not offend both. President Hadley is a conspicuous exception to the rule. He has won the support and confidence of everybody. Nor does this mean that the force of inertia has proved too great to be overcome. It is true that no radical or revolutionary changes have been made, but discussion is free and searching; the brakes are off, and important questions are being worked out. It is immensely encouraging that the most conspicuous characteristic of the new administration is the moderation, far-sightedness, and spirit of conciliation which have kept the whole mass in cohesion.

The first task incumbent on the new administration was to carry forward the plans which had already been outlined for the bicentennial celebration. The time had been considered a good one for calling on the alumni and friends of the university to send her into her third century better equipped for her work. Four million dollars were asked for altogether, one-third of which was to go into new buildings. Plans for a group of Bicentennial Memorial buildings were prepared, which include an Alumni Hall and a University Dining Hall, both badly needed at Yale. The construction of this group is under way, though the plans in their entirety cannot be carried out until more money is subscribed.

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Of the entire sum asked for, two millions at least were wanted before October, 1901, when the celebration will take place, and the rest by 1905 at latest. The President's report for the year ending June, 1900, showed that over one million dollars had been received or pledged. The sum asked for is no more than is required to put Yale abreast of her rivals, for she has long struggled against the serious handicap of inferior resources. To raise the money her appeal is made, not merely to very rich men, but to the mass of the alumni, and the number of subscribers to the fund is one of its most gratifying characteristics. From the time of his inauguration President Hadley has given himself to the work of strengthening the community of Yale men, graduates and undergraduates, and in this way is bringing a new power into the life of the institution.

The following passage from an address recently delivered by President Hadley strikes the note of character-building, which must always be the most important quality in the Yale conception of education: —

"The course must be one for workers, and not for idlers. It must furnish hard tasks, not only for the effect of those tasks upon the individual, but still more for their effect in making the college a place for students who are not afraid of difficulties. Poor as was the curriculum of our colleges at the beginning of the century, it had this cardinal merit, that it admitted no loafing. The men who lived for four years in its atmosphere might obtain a narrow conception of learning, and go forth into the world poorly provided with practical equipment for the details of life; but they had obtained that habit of determination in the face of difficulties which does more than anything else to make a body of men powerful in their several spheres."

PRESENT AND FUTURE POLAR WORK

THE curtain of the nineteenth century falls upon an unfinished Arctic drama. Of the four expeditions in the field at the opening of the last year of the century, but two have returned; one having advanced the outpost of exploration nineteen geographical minutes and miles; a second, dismembered, has practically ended its work; while from the others no tidings have reached us. While these two, both headed by veterans of the north, are absent with work unfinished, another enters, and an American capitalist boldly announces his determination to reach the Pole no matter what may be the price.

Mr. William Ziegler, who will supply the money, and Mr. Evelyn B. Baldwin, explorer, who propose to reach the Pole no matter at what cost, are both Western men, the former from Iowa, and the latter from Illinois. Mr. Ziegler has been identified with many successful business enterprises in New York; he was a prominent figure in a protracted litigation which wrought a political revolution in Kings County. Mr. Baldwin accompanied Peary on his second (1893–94) expedition, reaching with his leader and one companion the farthest point on the ice-cap, returning with the party and leaving Peary and Lee for a second winter and a second and successful attempt to cross the great white waste; he subsequently wintered with Walter Wellman on Franz Josef Land, and has had long training in the Weather Service of the United States.

One of the ships to be taken into their service will be called the *America;* the party's equipment will be more extensive than that of any previous party, and the start will be made early in the coming summer. "It has been the dream of my life," says Mr. Ziegler, "to reach the North Pole. When I was a boy I made up my mind to get there, and I have never lost sight of that resolve. I have seen how other nations have been pushing northward, and I am determined that the American flag shall be raised there first. So far as money is concerned, I shall see that Mr. Baldwin does it."

The Ziegler-Baldwin Expedition will enter the field at an opportune moment, for the year 1900 has been one of the least important in actual results, of the last decade. The return of the Italian Duke d'Abruzzi's *Stella Polari*, reporting the advance of his sledges to 86 degrees and 33 minutes, is the sole inci-

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dent of the twelve months so far known, which will be added to the permanent history of discoveries in the north. Duke d'Abruzzi, who had but a year before his departure won high honors by his brilliant ascent of Mount Saint Elias, addressed himself with characteristic energy and liberality to his self-appointed Polar task; left in June, 1899, in the *Stella Polari*, and taking the Franz Josef Land route, made the best of his way in his ship to the Arctic, passing among the islands to the north of Franz Josef Land and within sight of the spot (81° 14′ N.) where Nansen and Johansen hibernated in their hut in 1896 and 1897. The ship was finally beset in Teplitz Bay, at about 81° 53′, and further progress was impossible. Sledging parties were despatched from time to time, and in one of the excursions the Duke suffered serious frost bites on his hands, which rendered him unfit for duty for the rest of the voyage. On March 1, Captain Umberto Cagni, of the Royal Italian Navy, a comrade in the Mount Saint Elias Expedition, with twelve companions, started in sledge parties of three sections with dogs and provisions to the north.

The supporting parties returned at intervals; and when Cagni was at the last moment compelled to halt, having only sufficient food for the return trip, he had recorded the highest latitude yet reached by man. Had his supplies been adequate, there is no reason why he should not have gone on to his destination, — the Pole itself. The *Stella Polari* broke out of the ice August 8, in a damaged and hardly seaworthy condition, and reached Christiania on September 11, where Duke d'Abruzzi received a public welcome, in which Nansen, the Norwegian explorer, bore a conspicuous and honorable part, and three days later returned to Turin, where he was showered with greetings and congratulations from his countrymen.

Most important and, to the Americans, by far the most interesting expedition at present afield is that of Robert E. Peary, now on the third year of service under the auspices of the Peary Arctic Club. The last word from Peary is three-quarters of a year old; for, from that gray dawn of the 28th of August, 1899, when, beginning his second year of exile, he saw from the rocky headlands of Etah the *Diana* steam down Foulke Fjord and out into the open waters of Smith Sound, no word was received until November 25, when letters to wife and mother came to hand. Dated at Fort Conger (81° 11′ 44″ N.) March 31, 1900, they told of an arduous but successful trip from winter headquarters at Etah, an abundance of food and supplies, and advance at the earliest practicable moment along the northwest coast of Greenland, over the Beaumont and Lockwood routes, and as far beyond them as possible, it may be to the Pole itself. When these letters arrived, Mrs. Peary was five months absent on her northward journey to join her husband.

The sturdy little *Windward*, rebuilt and reenforced, with Mrs. Peary and Marie Peary, child of the farthest north, on board, left Sydney, C.B., July 20, and from them no word later than August 10 has been received. Peary's plan was to push as far north as Lady Franklin Bay, and if possible, beyond; then to put the ship bodily into the drift ice, and press it to the last extremity, — to the very highest latitude possible. Then, when it could be worked or forced or driven no farther, he would abandon it, and use every effort from that point, with the dogs and the sledges, for the attainment of the Pole.

No great personal danger in this bold and characteristic policy is involved, or, as Peary himself expresses it, "There is no great risk to anybody, except that we may have to walk home." Officers and crew of the *Windward* were shipped for thirty months, and coal, oil, pemmican, and other supplies for a long term were taken, and in addition to all these, the forty tons left at Etah by the *Diana* last year should give ample support for all that will be needed, even though the ship should not return for another twelve months.

Caches of provisions are not more than fifty miles apart; boats and sledges are stored between Allman Bay and Fort Conger, and a post road was practically opened a year ago from the lower entrance of Smith Sound almost to the gates of Lincoln Sea, so that with favorable conditions there is every reason to believe that Peary may have attained, last summer, successes of which he has not yet been able to communicate the news.

Second in importance of the absent expeditions is that of Sverdrup, in Nansen's *Fram*, like Peary's, two years from home. In the

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summer of 1898 the two ships raced northward, with the American in the lead, and so they passed the winter almost within sight of each other. Both broke out of the ice almost on the same day, and on the 12th of August, 1899, Etah saw its great and only naval review when the *Windward*, the *Fram*, and the *Diana* were all anchored within a stone's throw of each other. On that afternoon the *Fram* got under way, and steamed westward through the swift running ice for Payer Harbor. A week after, the *Fram* was seen in the middle of Smith Sound, heading northward, and there her record ends. Two rumors were current: that she intended to press through Kane Basin, or at any rate as far through as possible, then to land Captain Sverdrup, who, with sledges and dogs, would undertake to circumnavigate Greenland, while the ship would return and, rounding Cape Farewell, proceed up the east coast to a point of junction; the other, that she would go southwest two hundred and fifty miles to Jones' Sound, and endeavor to add to the knowledge of that remote and difficult country.

The two leaders, the Norwegian and the American, met in the fall of 1898, by merest accident, on the west side of Smith Sound, while both were absent from their ships hunting; what passed between them, of course, neither is likely to repeat, but there was a clear and definite exchange of opinion, and the relations between them have since been strictly formal and official. The propriety of the presence of the Norwegian in a field to which the American had given years of arduous and successful work, and which by his diligence and enthusiasm had become, in the scientific world, to be regarded as particularly his own, is a matter which history and good sense will decide. So far as is known, none of the results, not even the log of the first year of the Sverdrup expedition, has been made public, and practically the only information concerning it is that which was brought home by the Peary ship *Diana*.

An entirely new departure in Arctic exploration is also promised for the coming summer, when Russia will send north the ice ship *Yermak* with orders to try to cut her way through to the Pole. The *Yermak*, designed by Admiral Makaroff, of the Russian navy, and completed early in 1899, has already proved her efficiency as an ice-breaker. Two years ago she smashed into the ice of the Gulf of Finland and rescued upward of a hundred vessels helplessly locked in the pack. Later attempts at the Polar ice north of Spitzbergen prompted the idea of a dash at the Pole, and also suggested important changes in the vessel's construction. These have lately been effected at Elswick, and early in July the *Yermak* will start on another northward voyage. Admiral Makaroff is confident that his ship will cut her way straight to the Pole, and return in safety before the year's end, but care has been taken to fit her out for a long stay in case of accident or blockade. Though some Arctic authorities doubt the success of the proposed voyage, for the reason that the ice-breaker cannot carry a sufficient coal supply, and an attending collier will not be able to go far enough north to be of service to her, so competent an observer as Lord Brassey inclines to the belief that the *Yermak* will ultimately accomplish the undertaking set for her.

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MAKER OF A NEW STATE IN AN OLD LAND

THE CAREER OF LORD CROMER, THE RECLAIMER OF EGYPT —THE GREATEST ADMINISTRATIVE FEAT OF MODERN TIMES

THE most instructive example of colonial government perhaps in the whole history of colonial experiments is the government of what is in fact not a colony at all—the British management of Egypt. But the lessons that Lord Cromer's work there teaches go to the very core of colonial management. In the management of a bankrupt and corrupt country to conserve British interests, he has brought a new era in civilization.

A comparison of the basis upon which these interests rest with the actual legal status of Egypt as a tributary state of the Sultan reveals a thing without precedent in the history of the world. The remarkable diplomatic achievement of Lord Cromer, who has the simple title of British Agent and Consul-General at Cairo, is that he has contrived to turn the country into a vice-regal state of the British Empire in the face of native intrigue and in defiance of the united force of Continental opinion and diplomacy.

Egypt pays the Sultan an annual tribute of $3,600,000, but in all other respects it is independent of the Porte. The Khedive is an hereditary sovereign, who, with the consent of his council, has full power from the Sultan to make war and to conclude peace, to negotiate treaties with foreign states, and to administer the laws of the realm. But the privileges granted do not give the cue to the real position of Egypt. In the State documents written by Lord Cromer nearly every prerogative accorded the Khedive by the Sultan is stamped with the suggestive proviso: "with the consent of," "by the advice of," or "only on the approval of Her Majesty's Agent." By what magic has the British Agent and Consul-General achieved such extraordinary influence?

In 1877, as plain Evelyn Baring, age thirty-six, a major of artillery on leave, he was sent as a member of the International Commission which was to unravel the complications of the public debt of Egypt. This appointment he probably owed to the financial reputation of the Barings, although since 1872 as secretary to his cousin, the Earl of Northbrook, then Viceroy of India, he had shown a singular aptitude for diplomacy, as he had even before, as aide-de-camp to Sir Henry Storks in the Ionian Islands and as secretary to the Jamaica Investigating Commission. While his colleagues on the Egyptian Commission sipped their coffee and smoked their cigarettes in the cafés of Cairo, Baring was hard at work mastering the intricate mysteries of Egyptian finance. He mastered them to such good purpose that the Powers were obliged to demand the deposition of the Khedive Ismail.

At this point Germany, Russia, Austria, and Italy retired in disgust, and left England and France to adjust matters. Two Controllers-General — M. de Blignières and Baring — were selected to represent their respective governments. The Frenchman, however, soon bitterly complained of the dominant influence of his colleague, and Downing Street, utterly oblivious of the fact that Baring was the one man to enhance British interests in Cairo, sent him to fill a post that was apparently more in accord with his disposition and previous training — the post of Minister of Finance of India. It was a grave mistake, and one that cost Great Britain the expenditure of much treasure and the loss of many lives. Had Baring remained in Cairo, the revolt of Arabi Pasha, in 1882, would not have taken place. After the defeat of Arabi, Downing Street wisely saw fit to recall him from India, and to make him Agent and Consul-General. It was thus that his real diplomatic career in Egypt began.

France had refused to join Great Britain in putting down the revolt of the usurper; and,

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on January 18, 1883, the restored Khedive signed a decree abolishing the joint control of England and France, and taking a financial adviser upon the recommendation of the British Agent. From that time Baring, who was created baron in 1892, has been virtually master of Egypt.

His wonderful capacity to grasp the real situation has found expression in several widely separated directions. Every privilege that he was instrumental in securing for the Khedive from Constantinople he turned to British account. Every concession obtained from the fatherly and presuming Powers he diverted to the same end. To do this he was obliged to overcome the duplicity and the intrigue of the jealous Egyptian government, often inspired by foreign agents, and, at the same time, to cope personally with the schemes to oust England from the Valley of the Nile that were being developed in Paris, Berlin, and St. Petersburg under the most powerful influences. In all that he did he revealed that distinguishing quality of a great man — an open mind. The late G. W. Steevens, who knew him for a brief period quite intimately, has thus characterized his diplomacy: "Velvet as long as he can, steel as soon as he must — that is Lord Cromer."

In economic, legislative, educational, and social reforms the influence of Lord Cromer was everywhere supreme, showing on his part a wonderful penetration into every phase of Levantine character. His skill in selecting able lieutenants to execute his work has no more striking illustration than his securing the appointment of Kitchener as commander-in-chief of the Khedive's army, which reorganized under his direction, and, fighting under British officers and supported by British regulars, overthrew the Khalifa, and gave to Egypt the Soudan. The dam now being built across the Nile near Assouan, which will at once greatly benefit navigation, and at the same time make famine practically impossible, is entirely of his planning. In short, Lord Cromer has civilized Egypt, to the honor of England and for the benefit of mankind. And the amazing thing about it all is that he has done so by sheer moral force, and under the protest of Continental Europe.

No more significant sign of Egypt's degeneracy twenty years ago is needed than the fact that the interested Powers of central and western Europe deserted her. The country had sunk to the very depths of legislative, social, military, educational, financial, and economic degradation. To-day the legislative assembly is as representative as that of any European state. Class distinction is wiped out by industry and education. Taxation, except in a few remote provinces where the village chiefs still cling to the customs of the past, has been placed upon an equitable footing. Life and property are safer now than they are in most European states. The courts, religious, native, and mixed, are under strict and constant supervision of a British judicial adviser. The police system, as conducted by the British adviser to the Ministry of the Interior, is the best disciplined and most alert in the world. The former disorganized and ill-disciplined levies, which were disbanded September 19, 1882, by Khedival decree, have now been moulded into a fine body of eighteen thousand intelligent and well-drilled troops, among whom are one hundred English officers, and at whose head is Sir Francis Wingate, who succeeded Lord Kitchener. With the establishment of the Gordon College in Khartoum, a system of popular education has been introduced which meets the practical needs of every class.

Twenty years ago Egyptian government bonds were quoted at 43; now they are above par, and the general reserve fund, after deducting the expenditure incurred in reconquering the Soudan, amounts to nearly $20,000,000. In every department of internal administration the same gratifying results are revealed. In the last two years, since the subjugation of the Soudan, imports and exports have increased nearly fifty per cent, while with the guarantee of safety for transportation as far south as Khartoum, commercial and industrial activity of every description has developed to a wonderful extent. The growing influx of foreigners has caused a strict system of sanitation to be inaugurated, and every natural territorial advantage has been rendered inviting to foreign capital.

Egypt has not been so prosperous or orderly or productive since the days of the Pharaohs; and all this is the work of Lord Cromer under British influence.

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A STEAM SNOW-PLOUGH.



A DAY'S WORK ON A SNOW-PLOUGH

CUTTING THROUGH DRIFTS FIFTEEN FEET HIGH — BLASTING THE SOLID PACK TO GET A GRIP ON IT — PLOUGHS TUNNELLING TOWARD ONE ANOTHER, NOSE TO NOSE

BY

HENRY HARRISON LEWIS

OUTSIDE the little station on the Canadian Pacific Railroad big, lazy flakes of wet snow fluttered and covered the earth with a damp blanket, in which every footprint soon became a puddle. In the Bodine station office Mike Dorman, the foreman of rotary snow-plough No. 2, and Tom Flynn, the engineer, sat beside the roaring stove waiting for orders, which the telegraph operator was receiving from division headquarters.

We were at the east end of the Mountain Division of the road. Although the winter had hardly begun there had been two severe storms, and this, the third, promised to be the heaviest. It had been snowing intermittently for more than twelve hours, and in that time not a train had passed over the division. The morning express had got as far as Tracy and stalled, and was now waiting on a side track for the ploughs to open the road. Beyond Tracy were the snow-sheds and the Emerson flat, the worst snow-hole in the road.

"Here's your orders, Mike," presently said the operator. The foreman took them and read them to Flynn: —

"Run ahead of No. 3 to Tracy. Rotary No. 1 leaves the other end of Mountain Division ahead of No. 4. Meet rotary No. 1 at Emerson flat and clear it."

"May I go out with you, Mike?" I asked.

The foreman looked me over from his enormous height and bulk and grunted.

"Well, if you can stand it, I don't object," he said good-naturedly. "But you can't go in those togs; you'd freeze to death. I guess I can dig up a leather coat for you in the caboose."

We three, Dorman, Flynn, and I, left the station to go to the rotary, which was lying over in the caboose track near the round-house. It was dark now, and the wind had veered around into the northwest and was beginning to bite like an acid.

In the darkness the rotary snow-plough loomed up gigantically on the track. Behind it was a big mountain engine with steam up, purring, hissing, and singing as if eager to be off to the strenuous work before it. At the end of the train was the caboose, the lights burning dull red through the windows. In-

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side, the atmosphere was hot and strong, and through the cloud of tobacco smoke I could see some thirty laborers sprawling about on the seats, while on the floor were piles of big snow-scoops and dinner pails.

"No. 3 will be here soon," said Dorman to Flynn. "Run her out, and we'll clean up the yard tracks a bit and be ready to make a quick start. I don't want No. 3 to lie at the station too long, or she'll bank up. Come on," he added, turning to me, "we'll go up to the plough."

The "rotary," as the railroad men called the snow-plough, resembles a large wrecking car. Inside of it is the engine that propels the snow cutter or "eater," for it is not, strictly speaking, a plough. The end of this "snow-eater" is an enormous wheel enclosed in a circular shell or drum, at the front of which is a rectangular hood which trims the sides and bottom of the cut. The wheel has oblique cutting flanges, or lips, which whirl like the screw propellor of a steamship, boring into the snow-banks. This machine literally eats up, digests, and then throws out the snow, flinging it to one side or the other. The flanges, or cutters, of the machine are adjustable, so as to enable the wheel to be turned to the right or left as occasion demands. The wheel is about twelve feet in diameter, large enough to make a way through a drift for the passage of a train.



A SNOW-PLOUGH IN ACTION.

Behind the boring wheel are twelve radial, conical tubes, with a slot in the face of each, fitted with a blade four feet six inches long. The snow falls through the tubes into the back of the wheel, which acts as a powerful discharge fan. There are also ice cutters that can remove two or three inches of ice from the rails, and flanges that throw the snow and ice from between the rails outside the track. The plough, engine, and truck weigh about one hundred tons.

Behind the propelling locomotive come the repair and tender cars, with tools, coal, and water, and at the end a caboose. We ran up and down the main line to the yard limits, and soon had the rails as clean as in midsummer.

No. 3 pulled in an hour and a half late, laboring and floundering through the frozen drifts, and changed engines. A big mountain engine was coupled on, and it was needed, for the train was heavy, with three sleepers, a diner, several ordinary coaches, and mail cars. At 8.40 we pulled out, — Dorman, the engineer, the fireman, and I in the cab of the plough; and the passenger train came behind us.

The line was comparatively level for about thirty miles, and then there were two or three small cuts this side of Tracy. We had orders not to stop until we got to Tracy, unless we were held up by snow. As soon as we started, Dorman set the ice cutters and flanges going, and we made good time until we struck a four-foot cut east of Masonville. The wind had blown the snow bank high against the north side of the cut, and it had frozen hard, so that no ordinary train could hope to get through it.

As we entered the snow, I could feel the difference in the running. The engineer had started the cutting wheel. There was a muffled roar as the cutters ate into the snow and threw it back to the fan. Then a rushing swish mingled with the roar of the cutters, and a stream of snow "chips" flew off obliquely, glittering through the path of our headlight, and fell far from the track.

I was amazed at the ease with which the plough made its way, for we went at the rate

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THE CAUSE OF THE TROUBLE WITH SNOW ON NORTHERN ROADS.
The glaciers melt and send masses of snow and ice down on the track.

of about twelve miles an hour. The cut was three hundred feet long, and the crushing sound of the cutting wheel ceased with surprising suddenness. We had run out of the cut, leaving it as clear as a whistle. Dorman signalled the passenger train to follow us with increased speed, for we had come upon a stretch of prairie with only five or six inches of snow, and with a snow bank on each side not exceeding four feet high. From the cab of the rotary, we had an unobstructed view ahead. The flanges and the ice cutters cleaned the track perfectly as we went along at a more rapid rate.

Before we reached Tracy, long after midnight, we had cleared two more cuts, one of them on a curve and up-grade. This was half full of snow. At the bottom was a layer of granulated snow and then one of wet snow, and on top a drift of dry and sandy snow, and the wind was piling it higher every minute. But we made our way slowly and laboriously through it. Once or twice we almost stalled on the curve, and had to run back and forward, retreating and attacking for a fresh hold on the rails and the edge of the snow bank in front of us. The passenger train behind us had to keep running back and forward over the track to prevent the snow from banking up around the wheels and stalling it.

At last we ran into Tracy, looking like two moving mountains of snow. Number 3 ran on a side track, and Dorman went to the station for orders.

"Just got word from Wilson on No. 1 rotary, who is coming this way," said the agent. "He says Emerson flat is pretty nearly full, and getting fuller every minute. The snow is coming down the mountain in

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BREAKING THROUGH A BIG DRIFT.

solid chunks and banking right into the flat. Here's an order for you."

It read : "Pull out for Emerson as soon as you reach Tracy. Pick up shovelling gangs at Tracy and Red Mound. Reports say that Emerson flat is in bad shape."

We picked up a gang of Finlanders at Tracy, and a big gang of section hands at Red Mound, the next station west. At Tracy the climb began, and we made slow time, although the snow was not deep, until we got to the top of the hill and started down toward Emerson. Just beyond, at the foot of the mountain, was the flat, as fine a pocket to fill with snow as the King of Storms could desire.

It was three o'clock and was snowing heavily. The wind swept down the mountain side. The station was buried almost out of sight, and the coal sheds and outhouses had been obliterated by the accumulated snow. We encountered the drift as soon as we left the station, but it was shallow, not more than three or four feet deep, and we swept it away. Then we came to the big snow at the foot of the mountain. The two storms that had preceded this one had left a bank six feet high on either side of the track. This trench was now full, and five additional feet of snow was piled upon it. The rotary worked slowly, and began to drill into it. After a few minutes the cutting wheel began to labor, and the fan ceased to throw the snow off. Dorman backed out of the drift a few thousand feet and signalled the engines to drive in. This time we got into the drift several feet; then the outlet over the wheel was closed by the overhanging body of snow, and the fan could not throw it out.

"It's no use," said Dorman, "we'll have to put the gang to work."

"We'll have to wait till morning, then," said the engineer. So we backed out again and ran to Emerson, and forward to the drift again, to keep the track open so that we would not get stalled.

The snow had begun to fall more lightly, and by daylight had ceased entirely. The laborers were aroused and given plenty of hot coffee and meat and bread. It was bitterly cold in the high, thin mountain air, but most of the men wore felt boots and fleece-

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lined leather coats. Dorman soon had them out on the drift. Over the centre of the track he placed a gang of twenty men who shovelled the snow to another gang on a bench above. This gang passed the snow to another gang on a higher slope, which passed it on to a third gang, and so to a fourth. The last named were twenty feet away from the track.

The top snow was firm to a depth of three feet and came out in chunks, greatly facilitating its removal. Below this it was soft for a few feet, then firm, even hard, to the track. The snow was thus cut down until it was only seven feet deep for a distance of about one hundred feet into the drift. Dorman ran the plough back and attacked this mass, and went into it about ten feet; but it was like cutting through wood, and the rotary backed out again.

The laborers were set to work farther on, and Dorman climbed up on the drift with a long iron bar. He drilled several holes, about four feet into the drift, into which he dropped charges of giant powder. There was a series of muffled detonations, and the whole drift was rent and loosened for hundreds of feet. Into this the rotary now ran and threw out the snow. Progress was very slow, and except to an imperturbable giant like Dorman it would have been exceedingly discouraging. In three hours we had not made a thousand feet. The men were beginning to suffer from cold, and at intervals squads of them were sent back to the cook car to rest and to drink hot coffee.

Another thousand feet got us out of the pack, and we faced a wall of soft snow fifteen feet high. The laborers stood on top of this and pushed it down before the cutter, which threw it back to the fan, from which it shot out in a stream as big as a flour barrel, like spraying water from a fire hose. As long as the wheel turned at its highest velocity the snow was removed in front of it at the rate of about five miles an hour, and was thrown about fifty feet away from the track. The work was going along beautifully and Dorman was in good spirits, when "Bang! crash!" went something. He shut off steam instantly.



THE SNOW SHEDS FROM THE OUTSIDE.

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A ROTARY SNOW-PLOUGH.

We climbed out of the rotary and went ahead. Dorman examined the cutting wheel. One of the flanges had been broken off short. He got a shovel and cleared away the snow in front of the wheel and found the body of a steer frozen as hard as iron. It had evidently wandered into the cut before the storm and had frozen to death. It was thrown out, and Dorman and the engineer got a new flange out of the repair car. It took an hour to put it in place, when we started up again.

As the day advanced, the weather changed again and grew intensely cold. Working on a snow-plough is not play. Besides the hard work one must also contend with the cold and the penetration of the snow through the clothing. Progress was very slow. The first fall of snow had coated the rails with ice, and sometimes the wheels of the plough were four or five inches above them. Then the machine would be run back and forth with the ice cutters down until the wheels got a firm grip on the rails again. And sometimes, after the flanges had thrown the snow from the rails, it would roll back from the banks and cover them again, causing the engines to slip. Often we had to put the laborers to work to clear the ice off the rails by hand before we could move a foot.

About three o'clock in the afternoon we were on the lookout, expecting every minute to hear something of rotary No. 1, when the disaster of the day occurred. We had had much trouble with icy rails, and two trucks of the rotary were raised about six inches above them. In endeavoring to back off again to reach the rails, there was a lurch and a slip to the right, and we were off the track. I heard Dorman curse softly to himself. It was a serious piece of business — that almost incalculably heavy machine to be lifted back on the rails. It was intensely cold. It would soon be dark. Worst of all, the high hopes of an early end of the job now sank. I confess it seemed to me very like a hopeless and helpless situation.

The winter sun does not linger long in the mountain valleys. As soon as it sees the tops of the ranges it sinks suddenly to the western side. Engineers, firemen, and repair men came trooping up with jackscrews and tools. It took what seemed an interminable time to get the screws adjusted. The ice was cut away from the rails meantime. Inch by inch the enormous weight was raised and shifted until the flanges of the wheels were lifted over and caught the rails. We returned to attack the drift, but darkness descended suddenly, and the workmen were sent back in squads for supper.

It was about eight o'clock. I was standing high up on the drift to one side, watching the stream of snow shoot through the glare cast by the headlight, when I heard a noise ahead, and saw a faint light through the almost impalpable dust of snow with which the wind filled the air. It was the headlight of rotary No. 1 working through from the west; and I let out a joyous shout to Dorman.

In less than an hour the two big machines were nose to nose, and the Emerson flat was once more open.



THE TRACK AFTER IT HAS BEEN CLEARED OF A HEAVY SNOWFALL.

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GOING BACK TO THE SOIL

CAN A MAN MAKE A SMALL FARM PAY?—RELIEF FROM A NARROW LIFE IN A CITY TO THE INDEPENDENCE OF OWNERSHIP—SOME CHAPTERS OUT OF A PRACTICAL EXPERIENCE

BY

J. P. MOWBRAY

PHOTOGRAPHICALLY ILLUSTRATED BY GERTRUDE KÄSEBIER

CAN a man make a small farm furnish a living anywhere east of the Alleghanies? is a question that will not down. The agricultural publications, the seedsmen, the horticulturists, and the land agents get this question overwhelmingly by mail. It has increased in eagerness with the increase of competitive labor and the density of urban life. It shows that a large part of the community, both men and women, retain in all their feverish strife for independence an old dream, that somewhere on their own productive freehold can alone be secured the immunity, the freedom, and the repose which their vocations deny them. If this were not a widespread and confidently held belief, from the old sea captain, who ends his harpooning days on an impossible farm, to the worn-out artisan who goes into the chicken business, it would hardly be worth while to consider the question seriously. But it pushes itself forward in this practical shape — Do men who have tried other means of making a living, and have been disappointed, ever succeed when they retire to a farm?

During the half century which saw the old farms of the East run down and abandoned by the young blood and keener intelligence which alone could have rehabilitated and preserved them, other forces were silently at work. One of these forces now appears to be a natural reaction from the stress and penalties of life in crowded quarters. It has been noticed of late years that the pace of existence where the artificial excitements are greatest, results in an ennui and sense of waste, as the struggle for independence becomes more serious and the desire for equilibrium more pronounced. All the triumphs of science in such a city as New York are at the expense of security and repose. The city grows from homes to hotels and barracks. Its streets pass insensibly from sunlit thoroughfares to vast ditches, as the buildings rise higher on either side. All the conveniences are for the aggregates, not for the individual, and all its achievements in locomotion are at the cost of security. Wherever human beings are massed most densely, the danger of fire is enhanced. Wherever the modern conveniences are multiplied, the natural advantages decrease.

This artificial tendency of the city has given rise in our time to an entirely new factor called suburban life, that is, an existence which is spent between city and country. The expansion and perfection of railroad

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transit, which helped to ruin the Eastern farmer in making Kansas and Montana his rivals, has now brought the country to the relief of the city worker and enabled him to escape in some measure from the charivari of enterprise and the mockery of the flat to a detached and exclusive home of his own.

The extraordinary spectacle thus comes about in our time of vast concourses of people in a great diurnal ebb and flow wherever there is a metropolitan centre. These recurrent tides of life run out from every ventricle of such a great city as New York and spread themselves through Long Island, Staten Island, Westchester, Rockland, and Bergen counties, and stream off toward Connecticut and Pennsylvania, the distance of the country home being measured only by the salary and the leisure of the suburbanite.

It must not be supposed that the influences which have brought about this change in the habits and tastes of a large part of the well-to-do and comparatively independent professional, clerical, administrative, and operating groups, have not been felt by the still larger groups that are ordinarily classed as employees. The desire to possess a home however humble, that is not partitioned off from other homes, that is not up in the air, and is not oppressed by a janitor, but that presents the opportunity to store up ownership, has become the dream of thousands who wish to better the physical and moral condition of their little families. Such desire has led to innumerable attempts at small farming, market gardening, and chicken raising, by mechanics, clerks, salesmen, editors, artists, and even actors.

Nearly two-thirds of a city's population, barring the continual influx of immigrants in such an exceptional port as New York, belong to an intermediate aggregate of intelligent skilled mechanics, artisans, accountants, salesmen, small dealers, office holders, clerks, and artists, writers, teachers, and clergymen. The average wage or income, let us say, is twenty dollars a week. Plenty of these men get as much as forty, and others never make more than twelve. Here and there an individual with superior tact and extra good fortune rises out of his limitations, but for the mass it is a closed circuit, beset with increasing competition and always liable to contingencies which no amount of foresight or fidelity can prevent. It is in this group that we find both men and women looking with longing eyes beyond the steam and smoke of the city to that *ultima thule* where there is an abiding country home. The amount of patient heroism and self-sacrifice expended in the accomplishment of this dream is prodigious, but its story is never told. We hear only of the sum total of failures and the theoretic impossibility of running a small farm successfully in our day. That it is not an impossibility, when certain premises are granted, it is quite possible to demonstrate by facts and examples from actual life.

To work a small farm to a profit within easy reach of railroad communication is simply a matter of some capital, a decided preference for the work, average intelligence, persistent and patient industry, and good health.

It is well to consider these requirements a moment, because a great many of the persons who make the experiment do not possess all of them and fail for that reason.

Capital: Money in hand, anywhere from one thousand to five thousand dollars is a *sine qua non*, although the feat has been accomplished by German and Hungarian immigrants who had much less, and now and then by peasant plodders who had no capital at all. But they possessed in its stead a power of patient endurance and self-denial that one need not stop to look for in the average American.

Preference for the work: That is to say, a natural love for the country and the kind of labor farming implies. These qualities alone will find compensation in the toil that others would certainly miss. To those who cannot live without the excitement of city life, the task is a dreary and for the most part a hopeless one. To those who have an instinctive fondness for outdoors, for nature, and for animals and flowers, and some rudimental knowledge of botany, the severest exactions of farm life are sweetened by joys that are physically impossible in any other vocation.

Average intelligence: By this is meant that quick free-mindedness which is a general characteristic of Americans. It presupposes a common school education, some knowledge of the primary laws of natural philosophy, and a ready reception of the facts that science is

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By Gertrude Kitchelor

HARNESSING UP FOR THE DAY'S WORK.

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constantly making common property. It does not require genius to raise hay, potatoes, or pickles. But it does require tact, foresight, an equable judgment, some perception of economics, and that ordinary business capacity that can measure accurately causes and effects. The man who never looks into a book or paper is not apt at this time of day to fetch a piece of worn-out land up to a competitive standard. And the man of alert intelligence who was never on a farm in his life, can now equip himself in six months so as to supersede the man who has been at it all his life and is pursuing the methods of his grandfather. Ignorance in this field is now inexcusable. A benignant Government is the almoner of information as well as the donor of seed. Thousands of publications, edited by practical men, issue from our press weekly. All that is needed is the receptivity and the applicability to accept and use with "horse sense" the plentiful assistance which is in the intellectual air as the fecundity of the farm is in the atmosphere.

Persistent and patient industry: Three-fourths of the small farms that fail do so because the owner did not have the patient industry. He expected magical results. The routine wearied him. After he had spent a great deal of money on his ground, a poor German or Russian probably came along, bought it at a sacrifice sale, and is there yet, contented and prosperous. Impatience is the bane of the quick-minded man. The potato-bug will beat him, and the weeds tire him. Farming is made up of ten thousand petty difficulties. The successful worker is a continual fighter of details.

Good health: To retire to a farm because one is an invalid, presupposes a bank account large enough to run one end of that farm as a sanitarium or a park. It is an expensive experiment. True enough, there is a kind of ill health that will cure itself by hard work outdoors and a frugal, quiet life, but that hardly comes under my specification. I have in mind the man who is subject to rheumatism, to lung trouble, to a weak heart, to hay fever and its ultimate asthma. I do not see how such a man can brave the elements and defy the difficulties of spring weather in this latitude. Nor do I understand how that other man who cannot risk wet feet, or cannot pass a bunch of poison ivy without having his eyes swollen shut, or who is forever suffering from the chain of evils which the local doctor conveniently classes under the head of miasmatic, can successfully struggle against Nature.

And now I ought to add to all these requirements a good wife, and by good I simply mean a helpmate who enters into the scheme heart and soul, and is willing to bear her end of the burden. As it is nearly always the married man who seeks to benefit himself by trying the farm experiment, he might as well count the cost, before he begins, of a wife who says she cannot live without society, and is incapable of making a circle of her own out of whole cloth. Such a wife is very apt to consider it a far more laborious and humiliating task to churn two pounds of butter in a patent churn than to go shopping on Twenty-third Street for four hours in lively company to purchase a new safety-pin. She is probably a lady, a most affectionate mother, and a devout Christian, but she is not a small farmer's wife, and would be very apt to sit all day thirsting until her husband came home from the field to bring her a pail of water from the well, and she will doubtless succeed in driving her husband back to the city in three years, where she can at least see something going on.

Given these essentials,—and they are everywhere found in association,—there is no good reason why the man should not be better off in five years on his farm of twenty or fifty acres than he was before, if a fair, all-round appraisement is made. There are thousands of small farms within a radius of one hundred miles from New York whose owners have abandoned other pursuits and taken to tilling the land, and who could not be induced to go back to their former occupations. Their possessions range all the way from ten acres to fifty; their methods vary from the market gardener to the stock breeder, and their incomes differ accordingly. On Long Island and along the valleys of New Jersey they are mainly market gardeners, and get two or three crops a year from soil that is kept at the highest point of productiveness. By availing themselves of all the modern facilities, and by incessant toil through eight months of the year, they insure incomes of from eight hundred to two thousand dollars a year.

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By Gertrude Käsebier.

A DRINK OF WATER AT SUNRISE.

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The absolute gain, where these experimenters have possessed the qualities I have mentioned, can be quite accurately measured, but the result is not represented in the often sparse pecuniary footing alone. Personal independence, a new sense of proprietorship, the stimulus of working for one's self, the freedom from conventional restrictions of dress, society, and neighborhood demands; the companionship, new and sweet, of Nature, both animated and inorganic; the security from the vicissitudes attending great changes in the economic world, such as a strike, a panic, or the decline in demand for certain



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READY FOR THE DAY'S PLOUGHING.

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PICKING LIMA BEANS.

By Gertrude Käsebier

products, and a constant shifting of skilled labor by the introduction of machinery and electricity, — these are elements that form comfortable sum totals.

Most of these small farmers manage to have an abundance of wholesome food of their own

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production, and a little account in the savings bank. What they formerly spent on "appearance" and amusement, they put into the establishment; here a coat of paint and there a few dollars' worth of lumber; now a trellis and now a bay; a rustic seat or a gravelled walk; a little conservatory, a hotbed, a new row of flowers, or a pony phaeton for the depot and Sunday; and every purchase thus applied furnishes an additional sense of insurance.

Most of these small holdings have been acquired by a concentration and continuity of energy that few men will give to the interest of an employer, but the labor has been freed from a great deal of the deprivation that was felt by the tiller of the soil in another generation, and the results have borrowed some of the conveniences and adornments of modern life. The farms for the most part were bought by part payment, the balance remaining on bond and mortgage at six per cent in order to leave the operator capital enough to work with. Twenty per cent of these farms have been redeemed in five years, in some cases by the owner holding on to his city income, and living only part of the season on his place; but as a rule the debt was paid by the thrift, self-sacrifice, and cooperative determination of the man and his wife. We can well imagine that the struggle was at times tough enough, and that there were moments when the strugglers were hard pressed. But they came through it with their teeth set and quite unconscious that they were heroic.

One typical example comes to mind here. It is of a coach painter. He had worked ten years at his trade, for twelve dollars a week, and saved a hundred dollars a year. In the eleventh year there was a strike of his guild and he had to face the prospect of being out of work for some time, by no choice of his own. He bundled himself up, went down into Jersey, bought ten acres of land at a hundred dollars an acre, paying five hundred cash and giving his bond for the remainder, at six per cent. With the balance he bought a horse and cow, a second-hand wagon, and settled himself to earn a new living. A more desperate enterprise could hardly be imagined. He and his wife, with a five-year-old child, lived for two years in a shanty. Their little capital was soon exhausted, and to use his own words, they lived off the cow the first winter. But this man had the tenacity of a bulldog, the self-reliance of a drummer, and the patience of a trained nurse. When he had been on his place eight years I paid him a visit. His wife met me at the depot, three miles from her home, with a two-seated rig and a lively team. She had on a tailor-made suit, with a bunch of violets from her own pots at her belt, that would have cost a dollar in the city. I found the couple living in a new cottage that had been built by day labor and which the owner told me he had painted himself. It was a very tasteful structure and was already prettily shaded by the trees that he had set out. In reply to my questions, he said that he calculated to make about eight hundred dollars a year clear. He had bought the adjoining twenty acres on easy terms and had put most of it into good growing shape. "But," he added, "it will not do for me to say that any man can do what I have done with thirty acres. You see, a good deal of it was good luck. I just happened to have four acres of pickles in that year the Long Island crop failed, and it gave me my first boost. They bought the whole crop spot cash in the field. Then I made one or two strikes with cantaloupe and lima beans in town. I had just happened to get in with a new variety that grew splendidly in my meadow."

Now this is just the kind of good fortune that attends every farmer, little or big, who "happens" to have in the right crop at the right time and knows how to make "strikes" with something fresher and better than his neighbor.

Two things impressed me during this visit more than anything else. One was the development of the man's character through his experience, into a new self-reliance, and the complacency of proprietorship. The other was the achievement of something like "ladyship" by the wife in spite of her drudgery. The common belief is that such ignoble toil as she had gone through robs a woman of the capacity and the desire to wear the more amiable graces. But this woman made it very plain to me that this depends altogether on the "undaunted mettle" of the woman. The two joked each

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THE FRUITS OF THE EARTH.

By Gertrude Kasebier.

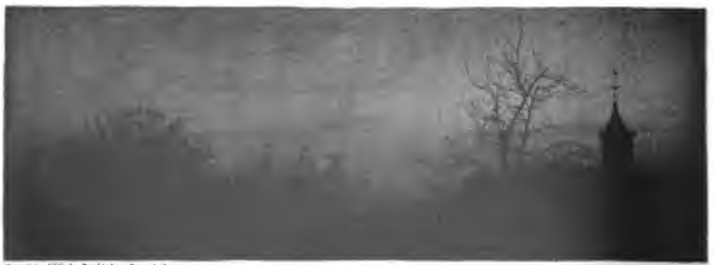
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other affectionately about their hardships, as if those hardships borrowed a great deal of enchantment from the distance, and had brought them closer together. "Why, Dolly there used to make a pound of butter a day with a patent churn when we had only one cow. Now that she has a girl, she makes four pounds a day and sells three of them. She pockets about three hundred and seventy-five dollars a year for pin money." But Dolly corrected him by the card. "Three hundred and sixty-two dollars and eighty-four cents," she said, "by having four friends as customers."

This, it will be said, is an example of peasant life that is not apt to be emulated by many Americans. It should, however, make its own answer to that objection, for it is virtually an escape from the peasant conditions of labor into something like a patriarchal proprietorship.

Take another example: A tin and sheet iron worker, thirty-five years old, with a wife and three children, was left a paternal farm of sixty acres in Rockland County, forty miles from the city. He tried to sell it, and it was in the market a year without a purchaser. He then determined to move upon it and work it. It had produced nothing but grass and potatoes for thirty years. He looked over the situation carefully, took expert advice, and brought to bear upon it the cool calculating sagacity of the ordinarily intelligent worker. He cut the grass off fifty acres, and it ran a trifle over a ton an acre (54 tons) of rather poor quality. He sold it standing for eight dollars a ton ($432), and turned most of the money into fertilizer. He then sowed down the fifty acres with fresh and improved seed, and cut three tons to the acre the succeeding harvest, which he sold for ten dollars a ton cut. Deducting the cost of cutting and hauling ($400), he had a balance of eleven hundred dollars. He was smart enough to devote the greater part of this money to the full recovery of the land and the purchase of the necessary machines. He put the other ten acres into potatoes and garden. At the end of three years he found that the maximum profit would not, on the average, exceed a thousand dollars. But as he very shrewdly said, the thousand dollars did not represent the gain as against the same amount of money earned at his trade, for in addition to that amount he had lived off the place, and only worked eight months of the year directly in the field. He employed two men at fourteen dollars a month and found, and hired extra help at harvest.

This feat looks as easy as rolling off a log. But as he said to me, "It is not as easy sailing as it looks. One year I got my hay wet on the ground, and I lost nearly the whole of it with mildew. But I picked up a little on potatoes. The next year the potato-bugs nearly drove me out of the county, but I pulled through on pickles, and what do you think — asparagus. You see, it depends altogether on how you look at it. My family have all the milk, butter, eggs, and vegetables they can eat, to say nothing of bacon, salt pork, chicken, duck, and goose. I can have my dogs, horses, and pigeons, and my wife has her flowers and her strawberry patch. I



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EVENING.

By Gertrude Käsebier.

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don't think she would care to live in a flat again."

"How about society?"

"Well, we never went much on society anyway, but we've made some good friends up here, and when any of our city folks come up in the summer, we can treat them a great deal better than when we were in town, and I notice that they are not anxious to go away."

Here was the whole thing in a nut-shell. He had lifted himself out of the servile rut and improved the status of his family by the change.

When we come to the men who have salaries of one and two thousand dollars and the large group of professional men who write, paint, teach, and act, and have the control of their own time, the country experiment takes on another aspect. Here and there in these groups will be found men and women who have invested their surplus modestly in a few acres with the hope of sometime retiring to the country permanently. Such an investment becomes their savings bank, with the advantage that no savings bank pays so high a rate of interest and never enlists so many of the healthy ambitions and faculties.

It rarely happens that the man or woman of refined sensibility realizes the dream fully in practical life, simply because the sensibilities interfere with it. But what is nevertheless noteworthy, is the stimulative joy of the doing, to which must be added the many joyful surprises that spring out of it. It turns out that the man of moderate income can build himself a home, both accessible and isolated, that will be, if not a joy forever, at least a very solid satisfaction for a lifetime, by the direction of his resources and his brains to its accomplishment.

I was recently looking at a very pretty cottage, quite Elizabethan in its general aspect, with a charming veranda vine-covered, and an open bay through which the roses leaned pleasantly. It was planted on a natural terrace about fifty feet from the little Mahwah River, and was built by a woman who for four years had been employed as an artist in a large publishing establishment. I estimated the cost of her house at forty-five hundred dollars. She told me it had cost her just fifteen dollars a week for three years. She had made her own plans, bought her own lumber by the week, paid her carpenter, mason, and plumber by the day, and helped to paint the interior herself. It was plain that she expected at some time to retire here and to make the place support her in part.

A few weeks later I was talking with a well-known seedsman, and he corroborated my own conclusions by the answers he made to my questions. "Can a young man," I asked him, "make a comfortable living, equivalent to good wages, on a small farm?"

"Yes, provided he is built for it, and doesn't try to do it out of reach of the market. Hundreds of men make very handsome livings with small farms within reach of the large cities."

"How does the life of such a worker compare with that of the city worker getting the same money?"

"It is impossible to make the comparison, but as a rule the successful farmer is much better off than the average working man, for he is continually storing up power and insuring himself, the knowledge of which alone affects his character and his spirits."

"What are the products by which the average small farmer makes money?"

"They include every edible thing that grows, and some things that are not edible. I have a young man in Delaware County who is making a handsome living with mushrooms. I know another in Bucks County who is clearing fifteen hundred a year on cauliflowers. He has recently brought into market an entirely new variety."

Just as I was coming away I remarked that there were plenty of men in New York City who would be glad to change their occupations for that of the market gardener, if they knew how.

He looked at me with a twinkle in the corner of his eye and said: —

"There are hundreds of men in New York with only moderate incomes who could buy a farm and build a home with the money they spend on theatres and bouquets, and thus have a nice asylum when they get the paresis. The only trouble would be that if they built the home, they wouldn't have the paresis to bring to it."

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GREAT TASKS OF THE NEW CENTURY

UNDERTAKINGS IN THE UNITED STATES, IN EUROPE, IN ASIA, AND IN AFRICA, THAT WILL CHANGE THE TRADE ROUTES OF THE WORLD AND GIVE DIRECTION TO SOCIAL AND POLITICAL DEVELOPMENT, PROFOUNDLY AFFECTING CIVILIZATION

BY

J. D. WHELPLEY AND R. R. WILSON[1]

The Nicaragua Canal

THE most important great undertaking of the new century is the Isthmian Canal. Congress once more has before it the question of whether the United States shall provide a ship channel across the American Isthmus. At the expense of a million dollars a new commission of the best engineers of the nation has examined all the routes proposed since Morgan the buccaneer fought his way to the sack of Panama. This commission has found, as have other commissions before it, that the best route for the United States to adopt is the one across Nicaragua.

The sentiment of the people of the United States has been expressed almost unanimously in favor of building this canal. With few dissenting votes the House passed a bill last winter providing for the work. The Senate delayed action upon the canal until our relations with England should be more clearly defined, and not because of any antagonism toward the enterprise. Both great political parties have demanded in their platforms that the canal should be built. The plan is ready, the money is available, and the people are keen for its accomplishment. It seems likely that in the first year of the new century the beginning of this work of international importance and national necessity will be made.

It is the greatest task of its kind ever presented to the engineers of any country. The canal through which the largest vessels will pass from the Atlantic to the Pacific, will be 190.04 miles long, and in its course ships will ascend and descend a continental divide over one hundred feet in height. The Suez Canal was once classed as a world wonder. It now appears as a simple task of ditch digging in comparison with the American waterway. It is estimated that between seven and eight years will complete the task and that an average of fifty thousand men will be employed in the construction.

For more than two centuries the people of the world have discussed the possibility of separating the two American continents sufficiently to allow a vessel to pass between them. It was one of the dreams of Napoleon. The French people, inspired by the winning personality of De Lesseps and his success at Suez, invested two hundred and forty million dollars in a futile endeavor at Panama. Commodore Vanderbilt, with his keen foresight and wide horizon of enterprise, attempted a transcontinental route across Nicaragua, where, by way of lake, river, and natural depression, his people wore the trail which is closely followed to-day by the American engineers in their selection of the best route from ocean to ocean.

The earliest survey for a canal actually made was in 1850, and the latest has just been completed. The one is identical with the other for many miles, and in no place do the two vary much more than the range of a rifle bullet.

The harbors at either end of the canal are now useless, and it will require expensive breakwaters at Brito to afford shelter and anchorage, and much dredging and building of jetties at Greytown to correct the action of the ocean currents which now shallow the coast line out to a considerable distance, leaving no deep channel into what was once a fine harbor.

[1] Mr. Whelpley has written about the Nicaragua Canal, and Mr. Wilson about the other great undertakings.

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The American engineers who have studied this canal project dismiss any intimation of doubt as to its feasibility. They admit the vastness of the enterprise and the complexity of the problems presented, but they have every confidence that American skill, backed by American resources, can construct an artificial waterway at a cost of less than one hundred and fifty million dollars, which will revolutionize the carrying trade of the world by materially changing the lines of least resistance.

Waterways from the Lakes to the Sea

Other great undertakings which await the energy of the new century are ship canals which will open the Great Lakes to the Gulf of St. Lawrence and the sea, to the Hudson River and New York, and to the Mississippi and the Gulf — thus enabling Buffalo and Cleveland, Detroit, Chicago, and Duluth, to ship unbroken cargoes by way of the St. Lawrence, the Hudson, and the Mississippi.

All of these projects have taken definite shape in the minds of practical men, for the Great Lakes bear to-day a commerce greater in tonnage than all the foreign trade in all the ports of the United States. Its annual volume approaches sixty million tons, — a traffic equal to one-third of that carried upon all the railways of the continent.

FROM THE LAKES TO THE ST. LAWRENCE

The construction of a ship canal opening the Great Lakes to the Gulf of St. Lawrence and the Atlantic falls by right to Canada. Its people have already burdened themselves with a bonded debt amounting to eighty dollars for each inhabitant in a resolute attempt to cut such a waterway, and what has been accomplished may be accepted as a hopeful augury for the future. Within the year the last gap has been opened in a fourteen-foot passageway from Montreal by way of the St. Lawrence and the lakes to Duluth; and it is now proposed to cut a twenty-six-foot channel from Georgian Bay to the St. Lawrence. It is estimated that this canal will cost thirty million dollars, but its completion will bring Duluth and Chicago five hundred miles nearer to Montreal, and afford their ships an air-line route to Liverpool, with ultimate promise that a cargo could be carried from the head of the lakes to England, for little more than the present carriage to Buffalo.

FROM THE LAKES TO THE HUDSON

A ship canal from the lakes to the Atlantic by way of the Hudson will compel an estimated outlay of from one hundred and twenty-five to three hundred millions of dollars, a sum which must, no doubt, if the work be done, come from the Federal treasury. An undertaking of this sort, however, would place upon the taxpayer a smaller relative burden than attended the building of the Erie Canal, while through such a channel would annually pass not less than twenty-four million tons of traffic, a tonnage thrice as great as that which in the course of a year pays toll to the Suez Canal. A commission of engineers appointed in 1897 by President McKinley advocate what is known as the Niagara Falls and Oswego route. Its adoption would entail much skilful engineering along the Niagara River, and the cutting of a channel southward from Oswego, on Lake Ontario, to a junction with the Erie Canal, which, with its feeder, would be given a depth of twenty-four feet. Against the cost of this work is placed the argument that its completion would allow all but the largest freighters to steam unimpeded from Lake Erie to New York, with a resultant saving in freight rates more than equal to prospective interest charges.

FROM THE LAKES TO THE GULF OF MEXICO

Chicago, with characteristic enterprise and thoroughness, has already begun the building of a ship canal to connect the Great Lakes with the Mississippi and the Gulf. At a total cost of thirty-three million dollars the city has constructed the Drainage Canal — an artificial river forty miles long, with a depth of twenty-six feet, and a surface width of three hundred feet, which must eventually form part of a broad channel from Lake Michigan to the Father of Waters. An extension of sixty-six miles from its terminus at Lockport will carry this channel to the Illinois River, and pour into that river a stream which will multiply its present volume sixteen times. The Federal government has assumed the burden of building the extension, and of providing a twenty-two-foot channel to Cairo. Thence, before the lapse of the

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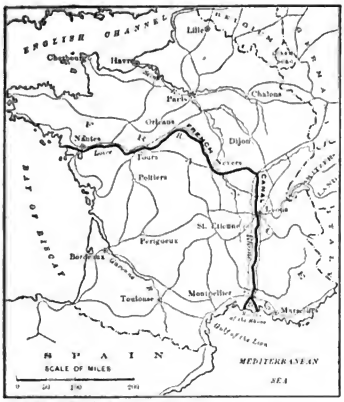


MAP SHOWING PROJECTED IMPROVEMENTS IN AMERICAN WATERWAYS.

new quarter century, a channel of like depth is certain to be cut to the mouth of the Mississippi. When these several links have been bound together and the Nicaragua Canal opened to navigation, the wheat and corn of Canada and the Middle West will be carried without reshipment to the west coast of South America, and to the ports of Japan, China, and Australasia, while a dozen great ports will spring into being along the Gulf.

Nor are these the only improvements in our waterways which promise to assume definite shape in the future. Pittsburg is putting forth all her energies to secure the construction of a deep-water channel from the Allegheny River to Lake Erie. Toledo and Cincinnati ask that they be connected in like manner; a twenty-seven-foot channel across New Jersey, from Philadelphia to New York Harbor, finds earnest and active supporters, and Wisconsin nurses the idea of a canal across that state, connecting Lake Michigan with the Mississippi. Federal engineers have surveyed a route for and reported favorably upon the practicability of a ship canal between Minneapolis and Duluth, whereby the greatest of our lakes would be connected with the navigable channel of the Mississippi, while Minnesota and her sister states, to the westward, demand an artificial waterway from the Mississippi to the navigable head of the Red River of the North, a daring but entirely feasible project which would open vast sections of the Northwest to steamboat traffic and connect Winnipeg Lake and Hudson Bay with the Gulf of Mexico and the Atlantic. Canada, moreover, proposes in due time to connect Winnipeg with the Great Lakes, and Toronto with Lake Huron, while she is also to build a canal from the southern end of Georgian Bay to a point on Lake Ontario opposite Oswego.

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PROPOSED CANAL ACROSS FRANCE.

AN INLAND ATLANTIC COAST WATERWAY

Equal in importance to any of the foregoing enterprises is the completion of an inland waterway from Boston to Galveston and the Rio Grande. Bills before Congress provide for ship canals from Boston Harbor to Taunton River and Narragansett Bay, and from the mouth of the Delaware to Chesapeake Bay — a total of thirty-two miles. The construction of these canals and the deepening of the existing channel across New Jersey will assure an "inside passage" as far south as Chesapeake Bay, and the engineer corps of the army is now making a preliminary survey for its continuance from Norfolk to Beaufort Inlet, thus obviating the necessity for coastwise vessels rounding Cape Hatteras. The widening and deepening of the Dismal Swamp Canal and the dredging of the Pasquotank River and of certain stretches of the sounds beyond are the most extensive tasks to be accomplished north of Beaufort.

South of that point it will be necessary to deepen the sounds above Wilmington, and to dig a cut-off across the North Carolina lowlands. After that a ship canal across Florida, the dredging of a few Louisiana swamps and bayous, and two short channels to supply breaks in the inlet system of the Texas coast will suffice for the making of an unbroken inland coast waterway along our Atlantic and Gulf seaboards. These links supplied, the United States will have the greatest stretch of protected water in the world, lending a powerful impetus, in peaceful times, to the growth of steamboat and barge traffic, and of untold value in war, as small warships and entire fleets of torpedo-boats could pass from northern waters to the Gulf without going outside at all.

European Canal Projects

England, in the construction of the Manchester and Liverpool ship canal, has given proof of her keen sense of the value of inland waterways. A more important project than either of these is now on foot in London, and promises to be one of the great and far-reaching achievements of the new century. This is a twenty-eight-foot canal from Southampton to London. A route has been surveyed by competent engineers who declare that the canal is not only feasible, but can be built at comparatively small expense. Indeed, the most serious obstacles to be overcome are political and sectional rather than financial. Opposition from jealous rival cities was encountered by the promoters of the Manchester and Liverpool canal, and is sure again to manifest itself against the Southampton enterprise. However, the latter's projectors, among whom are a number of prominent American capitalists, think that this can be overcome, and have placed the whole matter in the hands of the firm of contractors which is to build Mr. Yerkes's new London railroad.

France plans a canal to connect the Atlantic with the Mediterranean. She proposes to do this by connecting the headwaters of the Loire and the Rhone, and by deepening the channels of these rivers, which empty respectively into the Atlantic and the Gulf of Lyons — thus providing a water-route capable of floating ships of war or the largest merchant vessels. The building of such a canal would effect political and commercial changes of the first importance: then England would no longer command the western entrance to the Mediterranean, now assured her by the possession of the fortress of Gibraltar, and the voyage from the western coast of France to the East would be shortened by a thousand miles.

Germany's interest in canals is also particu-

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larly active. The Kiel ship canal, connecting the Baltic with the North Sea, is primarily a strategic work, but in June, 1900, there was formally opened a canal from Lauenburg on the Elbe, to the ancient Hansa city of Lubeck on the Trave, which is designed to be the first link in a system of commercial canals connecting all parts of the interior of the Empire.

Russia, however, is doing more than any other European country to demonstrate the economic value of inland waterways. She now has thirty-four thousand miles of navigable rivers and canals, and every year makes large appropriations for the building of new canals. The most important projects of this sort which she now has in hand are a twenty-nine-foot ship canal from Riga and St. Petersburg on the Baltic, to Odessa on the Black Sea, and a second artificial channel of equal depth connecting the Black and Caspian seas.

It has long been Russia's invariable custom, in constructing her waterways, to make them of a uniform depth sufficient to admit of the passage of vessels of light draught, open them to traffic, and then proceed with the further deepening of the watercourse. This rule will doubtless be followed in the building of the two canals under consideration. The largest item in the bill of cost will be for the construction of a canal and locks permitting the passage of the cataracts. The changes wrought by this canal — it is to be constructed by an international syndicate which has received important concessions from the Czar's government — will be nothing less than revolutionary, both from a defensive and from a commercial standpoint. Russia will then be able to move her fleets, without let or hindrance, from her northern to her southern frontier, while Kiev, two hundred and seventy miles from the coast, will receive much of the shipping of Odessa and other towns on the seaboard, and the produce of the interior will be shipped at the inland port, instead of being transported to the coast by rail, as is now the case.

Russia's Great Railroad Enterprises

Side by side with the improvement of her inland waterways Russia is energetically pushing to completion the most daring and costly railway enterprises ever undertaken by any nation. First of these in cost and economic potentiality is the Trans-Siberian Railway, which is to connect European Russia with the Pacific. Russian statesmen have had such a line in mind for half a century, but it was not until 1880, with the opening of the Ural line which joined Perm, in European Russia, to Tiumen, on the Tobol, that the first decisive step was taken toward its realization. Since then, however, there has been no pause in the work of uniting the empire by a single railway system.

The total length of the Trans-Siberian Railway will be 5486 miles, and its cost will not fall below five hundred million dollars. The return for this outlay will be the command by Russia of the shortest route from Europe to the Orient, a route enabling the trip from Paris to Pekin to be made in sixteen days, where it now requires thirty-four days to Yokohama by way of the Suez Canal, and twenty-five days by way of Canada. Moreover, for the interior of Russia the opening of the railway means that the resources of the East are at her disposal, and that she can deliver her own products to the East at a great advantage over her rivals.

America also will reap from this undertaking advantages at present perceptible only to the few. It is the belief of William M. Bunker, who has lately made a first-hand investigation of the subject for the San Francisco Chamber of Commerce, that the railway will afford us



THE BALTIC-BLACK SEA CANAL

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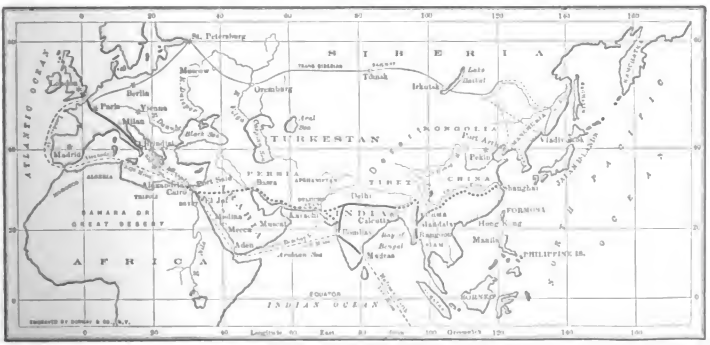
a new market for foodstuffs and other supplies. "This market," says Mr. Bunker, "will keep pace with the increasing colonization of Eastern Siberia. The railroad has been running as far as Irkutsk for over two years, but the countries of Europe, aside from Russia, have not benefited by the new transportation facilities, while during the same period there has been a steady increase in the trade of the United States with Asiatic Russia. Americans and American products are almost invariably given the preference, and as far as I can see the Pacific coast is destined to be the biggest beneficiary of Siberian industrial development."

Although Henry Norman has aptly termed the Trans-Siberian Railway "the greatest material undertaking the world has seen since the building of the Great Wall of China," it represents but a single phase of Russia's present activity in railway projection and construction. Her engineers are now studying the best route for a railway which will lead direct from her trans-Caspian possessions through the heart of Persia, giving her a port on the Persian Gulf. From the Caucasus she has projected a line westward toward Constantinople, and plans to push still farther to the east the road she has already built from Samarkand to the border of China; while yet a third connects Merv, in Central Asia, with Herat, and it is to be continued, in due time, to Kandahar and the Arabian Sea.

An All-British Railway to China

By such comprehensive and well-advanced plans does Russia aim to bring northern and western Asia under her political and economic system. Great Britain, quick to recognize their significance and the menace they offer to her own interests and influence in the Far East, is planning to offset them with a continuous railroad line from the Mediterranean to the Yang-tse, thus linking up and developing the British zone in Asia. It is proposed that the western point of departure shall be either Alexandria or Port Said, and that the route, following roughly the parallel of thirty degrees north latitude, shall cross the Isthmus of Sinai and Northern Arabia, skirt the shores of the Persian Gulf, and pass through Baluchistan to Kurrachee in India. The length of this section would be a trifle under twenty-five hundred miles, and, except at the head of the Persian Gulf, would present no physical obstacles that could not be easily surmounted. Use of the Indian systems, with a link to be supplied here and there, would bridge the distance between Kurrachee and Mandalay, whence the Indian government is now building a railroad to Kunlong. Careful surveys have developed a practicable route from Kunlong to the Yang-tse at Su-chow, and from that point a line could be easily extended to Shanghai.

Many-sided results will attend the building of this line. Besides revolutionizing the sea



THE ALL-BRITISH RAILROAD TO CHINA.

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route and traffic with Australia, it will provide a rapid and safe means of transit between Europe, India, and China, and will enable cheap and speedy exchange of products throughout the vast region lying between the Mediterranean and the Pacific. Finally, and this is the argument most frequently urged in its behalf, it will form England's natural response to the Trans-Siberian Railway, and will conduce enormously to her power and prestige in the East. Construction of this line is part of the declared policy of Great Britain in China, and conservative advocates believe it will be built during the next decade.

The Cape-to-Cairo Railroad

Great Britain, in order to develop her colonial possessions and more firmly bind together the scattered portions of her empire, also plans a railroad through Eastern Africa, uniting Cape Town to Cairo and the South Atlantic with the Mediterranean. This truly imperial idea had birth in the mind of Cecil J. Rhodes, and that resolute and masterful man has repeatedly declared that the line will be completed and in operation before the end of January, 1909. What Mr. Rhodes proposes to do is to build a railroad upward of six thousand miles long, which for one-half of its distance will parallel navigable waters, and for three-quarters thereof will run through lands scantily peopled in turn by savage negro tribes and more savage nomads of the desert.

With the exception of seven hundred miles of German territory, the lands to be traversed by the Cape-to-Cairo railroad are already under British jurisdiction, and this fact will help Mr. Rhodes not a little in pushing his plans to a head. Moreover, nearly one-half of the needed mileage is at present constructed, and it is estimated that the cost of the sections still needed to be built will not exceed one hundred million dollars. From Cape Town to Buluwayo, a railroad thirteen hundred and sixty miles long is now in operation, and this is being rapidly pushed northward through the gold and coal regions of Rhodesia, four hundred miles, to the Zambesi, which stream Mr. Rhodes hopes to cross during the next three years. Another section of two hundred and twenty miles across an open plateau will carry the line to Lake Cheroma, whence it is now designed to push it two hundred and



THE COLOSSUS OF RHODES STRIDING FROM CAPE TOWN TO CAIRO.

eighty miles down country to Abercorn at the southern end of Lake Tanganyika.

Right of way across German East Africa will next have to be secured, after which the line will be carried along the eastern shore of Tanganyika to Mengo in Uganda. Northward from that point it will traverse the edge of the plateau that skirts the western frontier of Abyssinia, and strike the Nile at Khartum. From the Mahdi's old capital the military road built two or three years ago by Lord Kitchener will carry the line to Wady Halfa. All that will then remain to be built will be a comparatively short section connecting Wady Halfa with Assuan, the southern terminus of the Egyptian railroad system.

Such, in brief, are the present plans for the Cape-to-Cairo line. They do not, however, set forth the full measure of Mr. Rhodes's far-reaching designs for strengthening England's hold upon her African possessions. He has also in mind a number of railways from the East Coast to feed his great trunk line. The whole eastern and southern continent of Africa is covered with Mr. Rhodes's prodigious plans, as by a net.

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A Railroad across the Sahara

If Mr. Rhodes has captured his countrymen with the audacious project of the Cape-to-Cairo railroad, Frenchmen show equal interest in the scheme for building a railroad across the Sahara. The vast territories their country has acquired in Africa call, they assert, for the building of such a line.

France's African empire stretches from the flourishing provinces of Algiers and Tunis to Timbuctoo and the Soudan. Its several divisions are, however, completely isolated from one another, and communication between them is precarious, uncertain, and slow. The thread of steel that would remedy this and build the several parts together would, in the opinion of Paul Leroy-Beaulieu, the eminent economist who has made a first-hand study of the subject, cost less than fifty million dollars. The length of the line from Biskra to Sender, or, if it be preferred, to Kavem, on Lake Tchad, would be about fifteen hundred miles, and M. Leroy-Beaulieu meets the difficulty of building a railroad on a sandy desert, with the answer that shifting sands are not characteristic of the Sahara, and that those which do exist can be avoided by a judicious exercise of engineering skill.

Although actual work has not yet been begun, there is little doubt that the French government will soon undertake the building of the trans-Saharan road. Its completion will enable France to transfer a large army in a fortnight from Algiers to the uttermost limits of her African possessions and to threaten British control of the Soudan. It will also open a new world to trade, to colonization, and to the globe-trotter. Indeed, one of the first of the material achievements of the new century may be to bring the heart of Africa within the compass of an easy journey of a few days, in a Pullman car, from French civilization on the Mediterranean.



THE CAPE-TO-CAIRO RAILROAD.

These prodigious undertakings, when they are completed, will change the routes of trade and travel in many parts of the world; they will knit empires closer together; they will bring political and social changes; they will open new opportunities to the most daring enterprises of commerce — they will give civilization new directions.

The world has never before had enough accumulated capital to undertake such tasks. But now, in spite of the vast sums spent unproductively in great armies and in all the machinery of defence, the money to carry out such gigantic plans is within the reach of governments and great companies.

In this rapid and incomplete survey of practical undertakings that are more or less immanent, only projects for the improvement of transportation have been noted, and only a few of those. Transportation is indeed the greatest force in linking the parts of the earth together. But such tasks as these are not necessarily the most important that are on the eve of accomplishment. Sanitary science and preventive medicine, the more extended use of electricity, the still greater and more revolutionary applications of machinery — in a dozen different directions tasks are in hand that will make a new earth of the planet that we are yet only beginning to know.

The part of the world in which no great undertakings of the kind that have been enumerated are engaging men's thought is the great South American continent. The irresistible progress of machinery and organization is felt there too; but there is a difference between the races of men. Almost every great enterprise is in the hands of men of our own race or of the Russians.

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THE RELATION OF WEALTH TO MORALS

THE RIGHT VIEW OF MATERIAL PROSPERITY — THE ACCUMULATION OF WEALTH TENDS NOT TO MORAL DECAY BUT TO THE DEVELOPMENT OF CHARACTER — THE PRIVILEGE OF GRATEFUL SERVICE TO WHICH MANY RICH MEN DEDICATE THEMSELVES — WHAT THE REAL DANGERS OF RICHES ARE

BY

THE RIGHT REVEREND WILLIAM LAWRENCE

BISHOP OF MASSACHUSETTS

THERE is a certain distrust on the part of our people as to the effect of material prosperity on their morality. We shrink with some foreboding at the great increase of riches, and question whether in the long run material prosperity does not tend toward the disintegration of character.

History seems to support us in our distrust. Visions arise of their fall from splendor of Tyre and Sidon, Babylon, Rome, and Venice, and of great nations too. The question is started whether England is not to-day, in the pride of her wealth and power, sowing the wind from which in time she will reap the whirlwind.

Experience seems to add its support. Is it not from the ranks of the poor that the leaders of the people have always risen? Recall Abraham Lincoln and patriots of every generation.

The Bible has sustained the same note. Were ever stronger words of warning uttered against the deceitfulness of riches than those spoken by the peasant Jesus, who Himself had no place to lay His head? And the Church has through the centuries upheld poverty as one of the surest paths to Heaven: it has been a mark of the saint.

To be sure, in spite of history, experience, and the Bible, men have gone on their way making money and hailing with joy each age of material prosperity. The answer is: "This only proves the case; men are of the world, riches are deceitful, and the Bible is true; the world is given over to Mammon. In the increase of material wealth and the accumulation of riches the man who seeks the higher life has no part."

In the face of this comes the statement of the chief statistician of our census — from one, therefore, who speaks with authority: "The present census, when completed, will unquestionably show that the visible material wealth in this country now has a value of ninety billion dollars. This is an addition since 1890 of twenty-five billion dollars. This is a saving greater than all the people of the Western Continent had been able to make from the discovery of Columbus to the breaking out of the Civil War."

If our reasoning from history, experience, and the Bible is correct, we, a Christian people, have rubbed a sponge over the pages of the Bible and are in for orgies and a downfall to which the fall of Rome is a very tame incident.

May it not be well, however, to revise our inferences from history, experience, and the Bible? History tells us that, while riches have been an item and an indirect cause of national decay, innumerable other conditions entered in. Therefore, while wealth has been a source of danger, it has not necessarily led to demoralization.

That leaders have sprung from the ranks of the poor is true and always will be true, so long as force of character exists in every class. But there are other conditions than a lack of wealth at the source of their uprising.

And as to the Bible: — while every word that can be quoted against the rich is as true as any other word, other words and deeds are as true; and the parables of our Lord on the stewardship of wealth, His association with the wealthy, strike another and complementary note. Both notes are essential to the harmony of His life and teachings. His thought was not of the conditions, rich or poor, but of a higher life, the character rising out of the conditions — fortunately, for we

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are released from that subtle hypocrisy which has beset the Christian through the ages, bemoaning the deceitfulness of riches and, at the same time, working with all his might to earn a competence, and a fortune if he can.

MAN "BORN TO BE RICH"

Now we are in a position to affirm that neither history, experience, nor the Bible necessarily sustains the common distrust of the effect of material wealth on morality. Our path of study is made more clear. Two positive principles lead us out on our path.

The first is that man, when he is strong, will conquer Nature, open up her resources, and harness them to his service. This is his play, his exercise, his divine mission.

"Man," says Emerson, "is born to be rich. He is thoroughly related, and is tempted out by his appetites and fancies to the conquest of this and that piece of Nature, until he finds his well-being in the use of the planet, and of more planets than his own. Wealth requires, besides the crust of bread and the roof, the freedom of the city, the freedom of the earth." "The strong race is strong on these terms."

Man draws to himself material wealth as surely, as naturally, and as necessarily as the oak draws the elements into itself from the earth.

The other principle is that, in the long run, it is only to the man of morality that wealth comes. We believe in the harmony of God's Universe. We know that it is only by working along His laws natural and spiritual that we can work with efficiency. Only by working along the lines of right thinking and right living can the secrets and wealth of Nature be revealed. We, like the Psalmist, occasionally see the wicked prosper, but only occasionally.

Put two men in adjoining fields, one man strong and normal, the other weak and listless. One picks up his spade, turns over the earth, and works till sunset. The other turns over a few clods, gets a drink from the spring, takes a nap, and loafs back to his work. In a few years one will be rich for his needs, and the other a pauper dependent on the first, and growling at his prosperity.

Put ten thousand immoral men to live and work in one fertile valley and ten thousand moral men to live and work in the next valley, and the question is soon answered as to who wins the material wealth. Godliness is in league with riches.

Now we return with an easier mind and clearer conscience to the problem of our twenty-five billion dollars in a decade.

My question is: Is the material prosperity of this Nation favorable or unfavorable to the morality of the people?

The first thought is, Who has prospered? Who has got the money?

I take it that the loudest answer would be, "The millionaires, the capitalists, and the incompetent but luxurious rich;" and, as we think of that twenty-five billion, our thoughts run over the yachts, the palaces, and the luxuries that flaunt themselves before the public.

WHO THE RICH ARE

As I was beginning to write this paper an Irishman with his horse and wagon drew up at my back door. Note that I say *his* horse and wagon. Twenty years ago that Irishman, then hardly twenty years old, landed in Boston, illiterate, uncouth, scarcely able to make himself understood in English. There was no symptom of brains, alertness, or ambition. He got a job to tend a few cows. Soon the American atmosphere began to take hold. He discovered that here every man has his chance. With his first earnings he bought a suit of clothes; he gained self-respect. Then he sent money home; then he got a job to drive a horse; he opened an account at the savings bank; then evening school; more money in the bank. He changed to a better job, married a thrifty wife, and to-day he owns his house, stable, horse, wagon, and bicycle; has a good sum at the bank, supports five children, and has half a dozen men working under him. He is a capitalist, and his yearly earnings represent the income on $30,000. He had no "pull"; he has made his own way by grit, physical strength, and increasing intelligence. He has had material prosperity. His older brother, who paid his passage over, has had material prosperity, and his younger brother, whose passage my friend paid, has had material prosperity.

Now we are beginning to get an idea as to where the savings are. They are in the hands of hundreds of thousands of just such men, and of scores of thousands of men whose in-

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comes ten years ago were two and five thousand, and are now five and ten thousand; and of thousands of others whose incomes have risen from ten to thirty thousand. So that, when you get to the multi-millionaires, you have only a fraction to distribute among them. And of them the fact is that only a small fraction of their income can be spent upon their own pleasure and luxury; the bulk of what they get has to be reinvested, and becomes the means whereby thousands earn their wages. They are simply trustees of a fraction of the national property.

When, then, the question is asked, "Is the material prosperity of this nation favorable or unfavorable to the morality of the people?" I say with all emphasis, "In the long run, and by all means, favorable!"

In other words, to seek for and earn wealth is a sign of a natural, vigorous, and strong character. Wherever strong men are, there they will turn into the activities of life. In the ages of chivalry you will find them on the crusades or seeking the Golden Fleece; in college life you will find them high in rank, in the boat, or on the athletic field; in an industrial age you will find them eager, straining every nerve in the development of the great industries. The race is to the strong. The search for material wealth is therefore as natural and necessary to the man as is the pushing out of its roots for more moisture and food to the oak. This is man's play, his exercise, the expression of his powers, his personality. You can no more suppress it than you can suppress the tide of the ocean. For one man who seeks money for its own sake there are ten who seek it for the satisfaction of the seeking, the power there is in it, and the use they can make of it. There is the exhilaration of feeling one's self grow in one's surroundings; the man reaches out, lays hold of this, that, and the other interest, scheme, and problem. He is building up a fortune? Yes, but his joy is also that he is building up a stronger, abler, and more powerful man. There are two men that have none of this ambition: the gilded, listless youth and the ragged, listless pauper to whom he tosses a dime; they are in the same class.

We are now ready to take up the subject in a little more detail. How is it favorable? The parable of my Irish friend gives the answer.

In the first place, and as I have already suggested, the effort to make his living and add to his comforts and power gives free play to a man's activities and leads to a development of his faculties. In an age and country where the greater openings are in commercial lines, there the stronger men and the mass of them will move. It is not a question of worldliness or of love of money, but of the natural use and legitimate play of men's faculties. An effort to suppress this action is not a religious duty, but a disastrous error, sure to fail.

SELF-RESPECT AND SELF-MASTERY

Besides this natural play of the faculties comes the development of self-respect and ambition. In the uprise from a lower to a higher civilization, these are the basal elements. Watch the cart-loads of Polish or Italian immigrants as they are hauled away from the dock. Study their lifeless expression, their hang-dog look, and their almost cowering posture. Follow them and study them five years later: note the gradual straightening of the body, the kindling of the eye, and the alertness of the whole person as the men, women, and children begin to realize their opportunities, bring in their wages, and move to better quarters. Petty temptations and deep degradations that might have overwhelmed them on their arrival cannot now touch them.

With this comes also the power of self-mastery. The savage eats what he kills and spends what he has. In the movement towards civilization through material wealth, questions come up for decision every hour. Shall I spend? Shall I save? How shall I spend? How can I earn more? Shall I go into partnership with a capital of ten dollars, or shall I wait until I have fifty dollars?

Wage earners are not to-day, as they were in earlier days, hungering for the bare physical necessities of life. They are hungering now, and it marks an upward movement in civilization, for higher things, education, social life, relaxation, and the development of the higher faculties.

To be sure, a certain fraction wilt under the strain, take to drink, to lust, to laziness. There is always the thin line of stragglers behind every army, but the great body of the American people are marching upwards in

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prosperity through the mastery of their lower tastes and passions to the development of the higher. From rags to clothes, from filth to cleanliness, from disease to health; from bare walls to pictures; from ignorance to education; from narrow and petty talk to books and music and art; from superstition to a more rational religion; from crudity to refinement; from self-centralization to the conception of a social unity.

Here in this last phrase we strike the next step in development. In this increase of wealth, this rapid communication which goes with it, this shrinking of the earth's surface and unifying of peoples through commerce, men and women are realizing their relations to society.

That there are those who in the deepest poverty sustain the spirit of unselfishness and exhibit a self-sacrifice for others which puts their richer neighbors to the blush we know by experience. At the same time, the fact is that for the mass and in the long run grinding poverty does grind down the character: in the struggle for bare existence and for the very life of one's children there is developed an intense self-centralization and a hardness which is destructive of the social instinct and of the finer graces. When, however, through the increase of wealth man has extended his interests, his vision, and his opportunities, "he is thoroughly related." His lines run out in every direction; he lays his finger upon all the broader interests of life, the school, the church, and the college. He reaches through commerce to the ends of the earth. He discovers one bond which is essential to the social unity in this commercial age — the bond of faith in other men; for in credit, on belief in others, our whole social and commercial fabric is built. And when a man has reached this point, he has indeed reached one of the high plateaus of character: from this rise the higher mountain peaks of Christian graces, but here he is on the standing-ground of the higher civilization.

As I write I can almost feel the silent protest of some critics. Are not these qualities, self-respect, self-mastery, a sense of social unity, and mutual confidence, the commonplaces of life? Is this the only response of material wealth in its relation to morality?

These are to us now the commonplaces of life: they are at the same time the fundamentals of character and of morality. If material prosperity has been one of the great instruments (and I believe it has) in bringing the great body of our people even to approach this plateau of character, it has more than justified itself.

One might, however, mention other and finer qualities that follow in these days the train of prosperity. I instance only one. We will strike up one mountain peak: it is that of joyful and grateful service.

THE PRIVILEGE OF GRATEFUL SERVICE

In other days we have heard much of "the sweet uses of adversity": the note still lingers in sermons and will linger as long as Christianity stands. There is, however, the other note that sounds strong in these days, — the privilege of grateful service.

I have in mind now a man of wealth (you can conjure up many like him) who lives handsomely and entertains; he has everything that purveys to his health and comfort. All these things are tributary to what? To the man's efficiency in his complete devotion to the social, educational, and charitable interests to which he gives his life. He is Christ's as much as was St. Paul, he is consecrated as was St. Francis of Assisi; and in recognition of the bounty with which God has blessed him he does not sell all that he has, but he uses all that he has, and, as he believes, in the wisest way, for the relief of the poor, the upbuilding of social standards, and the upholding of righteousness among the people. The Christian centuries, with all their asceticism and monasticism, with their great and noble saints, have, I believe, never witnessed a sweeter, more gracious, and more complete consecration than that which exists in the lives of hundreds of men and women in the cities and towns of this country, who, out of a sense of grateful service to God for His bounty, are giving themselves with all joy to the welfare of the people. And if ever Christ's words have been obeyed to the letter, they are obeyed to-day by those who are living out His precepts of the stewardship of wealth.

As we think of the voluntary and glad service given to society, to the State, the Church, to education, art, and charity, of the army of

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able men and women who, without thought of pay, are serving upon directories of savings banks and national banks, life insurance companies, railroads, mills, trusts and corporations, public commissions, and offices of all sorts, schools and colleges, churches and charities; as we run our thoughts over the free services of the doctors, of the lawyers, for their poorer clients, we are amazed at the magnitude of unpaid service, which is now taken for granted, and at the cheerful and glad spirit in which it is carried through. Material prosperity is helping to make the national character sweeter, more joyous, more unselfish, more Christlike. That is my answer to the question as to the relation of material prosperity to morality.

Again I feel a silent protest. Is not the writer going rather far? We did not believe that our twenty-five billions would lead to orgies; but is he not getting rather close to the millennium? Are there no shadows and dark spaces in the radiance which he seems to think that wealth is shedding around us?

Yes, my friendly critic, there are, and to a mention of a few of them I give the pages that are left.

THE SPIRIT OF COMMERCIALISM

First and most pervasive, I name the spirit of commercialism. It crops up in many forms and places, hydra-headed.

Is it any wonder? When one realizes that in the last ten years seventy millions of people have earned their living, paid their bills, and have at the same time increased the property of the Nation by twenty-five billions of dollars, we reach a slight conception of the intensity, the industry, the enterprise, and the ability with which those people have thought, worked, and reaped. One wonders that religion, charity, or culture have survived the strain at all. When the eye and ambition of a strong man are set upon a purpose, he sometimes neglects other considerations; he is not over nice about the rights of others; he occasionally overrides the weak, crushes out the helpless, and forgets to stop and pick up those that have fallen by the way.

We know how that was in England: we remember the report of the Commission by Lord Shaftesbury as to the horrible condition of the miners, men, women, and children. That was simply one phase in the development of the great movement of modern industrialism. It was a neglect and forgetfulness under a new pressure, rather than deliberate cruelty. The facts once known, attention called, — and reforms began; and they have been going on in behalf of the working people ever since. Much, very much, has been done.

As conditions change, much remains to do. The better adjustment of rights, wages, and taxes will call for the highest intelligence and strongest character. Again, the small tradesman has driven away the little counter where a widow earned her living, the larger tradesman has wiped out the small tradesman, and the department store is now finishing off some of the large tradesmen. It is hard, but it is a part of the great economic movement. It endangers some of the fundamentals of morality, and destroys for the time some of the finer graces.

Ephemeral success sometimes follows deceit, and that breeds a body of commercial frauds; but they cannot endure. A fortune is won by an unscrupulous adventurer; and a hundred fortunes are lost and characters spoiled in trying to follow suit. An ignorant man happens upon wealth or by some mysterious commercial ability wins wealth, and he then thinks himself omniscient. He, not God, is his own creator. He goes to church, but he is Godless. When a nation of people have been seeking for clothes, houses, and comforts in the upbuilding of civilization, is it any wonder that they do not realize that a man's life consisteth not in the abundance of things that he possesseth? There are deceit, hardness, materialism, and vulgarity in the commercial world; and to me the vulgarest of all is not the diamond-studded operator, but the horde of mothers crushing each other around the bargain counter in their endeavor to get something, and that so small, for nothing. The worst of commercialism is that it does not stop at the office, but enters the home, taints the marriage vow, and poisons social life at its springs.

Beyond these rudimentary forms of commercialism, there is another, even more dangerous, because it threatens the liberties and rights of the people. The eye of the public is on it now. I refer to the relation of con-

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centrated masses of wealth to the public service.

I have no time to more than suggest a few of the conditions that have led up to this. Industrial enterprise has drawn many of the strongest and ablest men from political to commercial interests; society and legislation now do for the people what in other days the landlord did; they are concerned more and more with industrial, commercial, and financial questions, from the national tariff to the size of a house-drain. Just at this time, and because of our great industrial development and prosperity, a horde of ignorant voters waiting to be moulded by any strong leader have come to this shore. The wide distribution of wealth has driven merchants and mechanics, widows and trustees of orphans, doctors and ministers, to invest their savings in great enterprises, corporations, and trusts, which, to succeed, must be directed by a few men. We have therefore this situation: a few men responsible for the safekeeping and development of enormous properties, dependent upon legislation, and a great mass of voters, many of them ignorant, represented by their own kind in city or state government, strongly organized by a leader who is in it for what he can get out of it, and who is ever alert with his legislative cohorts to "strike" the great corporations. The people believe that the officers of great corporations so manage that they can get what they want, call it by assessment, bribery, ransom, or what you will, and they brand those otherwise respectable men as cowards and traitors to public liberty.

THE RICH MAN AND THE BURGLAR

A burglar breaks into your house, awakes you, and "strikes" you for $500 which is in your safe downstairs. You expostulate: he answers that he will burn your house. But your children, you cry, will they be safe? He does not know: he wants the money. But if you give it to him, he will try the same on other people. It is against all public duty for you to yield. Again, the threat that he will burn your house; and you, miserable, conscience-stricken that you are doing a cowardly thing, and one against the safety of the public, crawl downstairs, open the safe, and hand over the cash. You have saved your house and children, but how about your duty to the public and your neighbors, as well as to yourself?

This is very much the position of the great trustees of capital, the heads of our great corporations, at the hands of the modern bandit. Shall they jeopardize the income of women and children, merchants and mechanics, and perhaps drive them into poverty? Or shall they accept the situation, yield to the threat, and trust to the authorities to seize the robber, or through an aroused public opinion so to vote, act, and legislate as to change the law and stop this modern brigandage? That some of the promoters and managers of great corporations are unscrupulous is undoubtedly true. The jail is none too good for them, if only the law would touch them. Nor have we a word of apology or justification for any man who yields to or encourages blackmail. The difficulty, however, is not a simple one. It concerns more than the directors and the politicians; it relates to the rights and liberties of the people. I do not have so much fear of the rich man in office, as I do of the poor but weak man in office and the rich man outside. Through the interplay of aroused public opinion, better legislation, and intelligent action, the relief will come. A younger generation, with its eye keen upon that danger-point, is coming to the front.

In some cities of China the houses have no windows on the street, only bare walls and the little door. The families are isolated, narrow, and selfish: there is no public spirit. When the Chinese boy returns home from his Christian Mission School, touched with the spirit of Christian civilization, his first work in bringing civilization to his home is to take a crowbar, knock a hole in the front wall, and make a window, that he may see out and the people see in. He unifies society and creates a public opinion. What is needed as our next step in civilization is to break a hole and make a window that the public may see into the great corporations and trusts and, what is just as important, that the managers may see out and recognize the sentiment of the public.

Light and action — heroic action! There are men to-day waiting and wanting to act, to throw off the shackles of the modern bandit; but they dare not alone: their trusts are too

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great. What is wanted is a group of men, high in position, great in power, who at great cost, if need be, will stand and say, "Thus far, up to the lines of the nicest honor, shalt thou go, and no farther."

The people have their eye upon the public service. An administration may pay political debts by pushing ignorant and unworthy men into the lower offices, but when it comes to filling positions of great responsibility the President could not, and would not if he could, appoint men less worthy than Wood in Cuba, Allen in Porto Rico, and Taft in the Philippines, men of force, intelligence, and character. Collegiate education does not insure character, but it does sift men and insure intelligence; and, as President Pritchett of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology pointed out in his inaugural address, though less than one per cent of our population are college men, yet from this very small fraction a majority of the legislative, executive, and judicial places of the General Government which have to do in any large way with shaping the policy and determining the character of the government, are chosen.

THE DANGER FROM LUXURY

One other dark shadow, and I am done. The persistent companion of riches, — luxury and an ability to have what you want. That vice and license are rampant in certain quarters is clear; that vulgar wealth flaunts itself in the face of the people is beyond question; and that the people are rather amused at the spectacle must be confessed. The theatre syndicate will turn on to the boards whatever the people want; and the general tone of the plays speaks not well for the taste and morality of the people. The strain of temptation overwhelms a fraction of our youth. But one has no more right to test the result of prosperity by the small class of the lazy and luxurious than he has to test the result of poverty by the lazy tramp.

With all this said, the great mass of the people are self-restrained and simple. Material prosperity has come apace, and on the whole it uplifts. Responsibility sobers men and nations. We have learned how to win wealth: we are learning how to use and spend it. Every year marks a long step in advance in material prosperity, and character must march in step. Without wealth, character is liable to narrow and harden. Without character, wealth will destroy. Wealth is upon us, increasing wealth. The call of to-day is, then, for the uplift of character, — the support of industry, education, art, and every means of culture; the encouragement of the higher life; and, above all, the deepening of the religious faith of the people; the rekindling of the spirit, that, clothed with her material forces, the great personality of this Nation may fulfil her divine destiny.

I have been clear, I trust, in my opinion that material prosperity is in the long run favorable to morality. Let me be as clear in the statement of that eternal truth, that neither a man's nor a nation's life consists in the abundance of things that he possesseth.

In the investment of wealth in honest enterprise and business, lies our path of character. In the investment of wealth in all that goes towards the uplift of the people in education, art, and religion is another path of character. Above all, and first of all, stands the personal life. The immoral rich man is a traitor to himself, to his material as well as spiritual interests. Material prosperity is upon us; it is marching with us. Character must keep step, ay, character must lead. We want great riches; we want also great men.

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NEW ENGLAND ELMS IN WINTER (BOSTON).



PARK-MAKING AS A NATIONAL ART

THE WONDERFUL DEVELOPMENT OF AMERICAN PARK SYSTEMS —THE ECONOMIC AND SANITARY VALUE OF BREATHING SPACES — THE GROWTH OF A GREAT NATIONAL DEMOCRATIC ART, AND OF THE POPULAR ENJOYMENT OF IT

BY

H. B. MERWIN



"Duchess" at her bath, Lincoln Park, Chicago.

THE most noteworthy development of any art in recent times in our country is the growth of landscape architecture. Within easy memory it has passed from private to public recognition, and men of middle age can readily recall the time when formal lawn-plots amid rigid tree settings were regarded as the best offering of the landscape architect. Now we take our magnificent public parks as a matter of course; we keenly appreciate them — in fact, we could not get along without them. But all this fast-growing public interest in landscape architecture is a development of the last half century. It began with individual owners of estates and extended gradually to the people. It was long an aristocratic art, but the democratic appreciation of it has opened up the possibilities of a complete development; and it now perhaps deserves to be called, in a sense that no other art does, the peculiarly democratic and American art.

There is nothing in which our cities take more pride. Go to any city or town you will, and you will discover that the park plays an important part in the life and enjoyment of the people of all classes. The day is coming, if the present popular interest endure and increase, when the United States will present by far the largest area of artistic pleasure-grounds in the world. In fact, it requires no great exercise of the imagination to foresee a time when there will stretch in every direction across and up and down the country great areas of landscape architecture — a beautified continent as the result of a rational and national popular art.

The present wide interest in landscape architecture has in part, at least, an economic foundation. The abandonment of the open spaces of the country for the huddled quarters of the city brought a number of peculiar evils — the insanitary effect of crowding, the ugliness of paved streets and long rows of

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Photograph by Alfred Stieglitz.

A SNOWY DAY.
At the edge of Central Park, looking down Fifth Avenue.

houses all alike, the lack of healthful exercise, and the contagion of crowded immorality. Public parks represent a practical endeavor to ameliorate these evil conditions. The younger cities are profiting by the experience of the older, many of which, by failing to recognize at the beginning of their growth that open spaces would become necessary, have had to invest enormous sums in park land.

Greater New York City, for instance, has about 295 square miles, of which more than 10 square miles (6766 acres) are parks. Moreover, a large proportion of the area of the city consists of open spaces on the outskirts which have not yet been built up, and as the city extends farther out, provision will probably be made for a greater park acreage. Chicago has three park systems: the South Park system with five large parks, of 1181 acres; the Lincoln Park system with Lincoln Park (308 acres) and two smaller parks of nearly 10 acres; and the West Chicago system of three large parks, of 575 acres, and



Photograph by Alfred Stieglitz

A WINTER VIEW IN CENTRAL PARK, NEW YORK.

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six small parks, of 37 acres. As in a number of other cities, the Chicago park systems are connected by miles of handsome boulevards.

Philadelphia has one large park, of 3300 acres, and twenty-two small ones of 318 acres. The three large parks of San Francisco cover 1090 acres, and the fourteen small parks, 224 acres. In Baltimore there are nine large parks, with an area of 1100 acres, and twenty small parks, covering 37 acres. Public spirit has promoted the growth of the Baltimore parks, even beyond the ability of the city to care for them. Detroit has a lovely island park — Belle Isle. It is about two miles long. Part of the island has been improved, but at the upper end the natural conditions have been faithfully preserved. Detroit has one other large park, the combined area of the two being 723 acres. There are also seventeen small parks, with a total area of 30 acres. Among other cities with notable park areas may be mentioned Buffalo, Cincinnati, Cleveland, Kansas City, St. Louis, St. Paul, Minneapolis, Newark, and Hartford. St. Louis has eleven large and ten small parks, with a total area of 2223 acres. The area of the three Kansas City parks is 1328 acres. Minneapolis has given 1500 acres to her eleven large parks and 40 acres to her twenty-five small parks. She possesses a great natural beauty in Minnehaha Falls. The Newark parks include 3113 acres, the Hartford parks 1207 acres, the Cleveland parks 1214 acres, the St. Paul parks 889 acres, the Buffalo parks 813 acres.



Photograph by Alfred Stieglitz.

THE END OF WINTER — BIRCHES IN CENTRAL PARK.

Boston leads this country in the size and extent of her park system. The city herself possesses 2337 acres of parks, but the Metropolitan System, including large areas in suburban municipalities, is much more elaborate. The Metropolitan Commissioners have purchased 8000 acres. The work of improvement is now in progress. The total cost of the land has come within $8,000,000, half of which has been paid by Boston, and half by the suburban towns.

About one-eighteenth of the total area of our twenty-two leading cities is devoted to parks. There is no feeling that this proportion is too large. On the contrary, the constant tendency favors a further extension of park areas, both by the retention of outlying districts and by the creation of public squares in crowded districts.

Boston spent on her parks in 1899, about $145,000; Chicago, on the South Park system, nearly $405,000; on the Lincoln Park system, about $315,000; on the West Chicago system, about $883,000; Cincinnati, $45,800; Detroit, $160,320; Brooklyn and Queens Boroughs of Greater New York, about $547,000; Bronx Borough of Greater New York, about $245,000. These figures represent in some instances merely the cost of maintenance of existing parks; in other instances they include money used for improvement of new parks. The appropriations of different cities vary in different years according to the amount of work to be done or the generosity of the municipal administration.

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JAMAICA PARK, BOSTON.
Among the beech trees, opposite Pine Bank.

At the outset, there was much feeling against giving large spaces for park purposes. It was argued that they would greatly increase taxation; it was urged that they would be frequented only by the vicious, and that respectable people would soon become ashamed to be seen within their boundaries. There was, not so many years ago, serious opposition to Central Park in New York. But people everywhere now regard any reasonable park tax as well-spent money. Though park appropriations have increased taxes, the parks themselves have tended to make much greater than formerly the value of adjacent property. Householders seldom object to paying something for cool breezes and refreshing views and playgrounds for their children. Moreover, it has proved as easy — in most places easier — to police the parks as to police the streets.

The sanitary effects of the parks are important especially in the large cities. Mr. August Moebus, Commissioner for the Borough of the Bronx, New York, says: "Our asphalt paving system, our street-cleaning system, and our park system combined have reduced our



PALMETTOES IN WEST END PARK, NEW ORLEANS.



ARCHED AVENUE IN THE PARK, NEW ORLEANS.

mortality in the city of New York to the lowest *per centum* of any city in the world. I sincerely believe that our breathing places in the shape of parks have added materially to this result." This view is borne out more definitely by a map published by the West Chicago Park Commissioners, showing the average location of deaths in the city of Chicago during one year. The dots used to represent the ratio of mortality are very few on the streets bordering on the parks. There is room, perhaps, for the objection that the districts near the parks are not so densely populated as the other districts of the city. But with due allowance the low mortality near the parks is still significant. Near Lincoln Park the population is fairly thick and not altogether of the well-to-do class, yet the mortality there is much lower than in some other residential parts of the city where there are no parks. In a number of foreign cities — especially in London,

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ELLICOTT DALE, FRANKLIN PARK, BOSTON.

Liverpool, Glasgow, Edinburgh, Paris, and Frankfort — the opening up of small parks and squares in densely inhabited quarters has been followed by a notable decrease of mortality. The method generally followed is to create open spaces by tearing down old tenements. Mulberry Bend Park in New York City is an example of this plan. Other parks are to be opened in New York's crowded East Side, and in the same way other American cities are making a virtue of necessity. These small parks are often playgrounds as well as breathing spaces, and attract street children with swings, sand piles, and simple gymnastic apparatus. They also have an excellent moral effect. They discourage the criminal, much as the tearing down of a ramshackle out-building discourages the rats that have been accustomed to use it as a hiding place.



WEST ROXBURY PARKWAY, BOSTON.

One reason why parks tend to lessen mortality is that they serve as reservoirs for pure air. A foul atmosphere weakens the vitality and makes it harder for the individual to resist disease. Another reason is the undoubted sanitary use of trees. A border of trees around a city is a great hindrance to the entrance of epidemics. Experienced

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A BIRD'S-EYE VIEW OF FAIRMOUNT PARK, PHILADELPHIA.

Photograph by Kem.



IN COMO PARK, ST. PAUL, MINNESOTA.

Photograph by Haas Bro.s.

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travellers in countries where malaria prevails locate their nightly camps in places cut off by groves from pestilential swamps. When the trees that stood between the Pontine Marshes and a certain quarter of the city of Rome were cut down, the quarter soon became unhealthful. Moreover, by the even temperature which they keep, trees help to mitigate the summer heat and the winter cold.

So much for the economic and sanitary value of parks. But their artistic value is even greater. The ideal park is planned to show Nature in as many aspects as may be reproduced. If in the heart of a city, it is so laid out that the visitor will catch no glimpse of surrounding buildings. Hills are raised and trees are planted to give a mysterious effect of farther distances. The tract is made to seem much more extensive than it really is. The plans provide an agreeable combination of woodlands and open fields, miniature cliffs and gentle eminences. The impression of the whole is reposeful, but interest is aroused at every turn by something new — a contrast in color or in form. Flowering plants and shrubs are set out in profusion, but not to bewilder. Every view offers a suggestion; even the formal gardens — which represent the most artificial school of landscape architecture — are approved by the eye. In tangled tracts, here and there, Nature is left to herself, but the gradations between her handiwork and that of man are so easy that there is no sense of a comparison between the artificial and the real. The general view gives an idea of completeness. Every possibility of pleasing the sight and stimulating the imagination has been met.

It is impossible to measure the educational value of such a park. Its influences permeate a community in subtle ways, shaping a thought here, or there soothing a trouble. Man in the city is out of the element in which he best thrives spiritually. The park is a tonic to lessen his depression. There is no good reason why the United States, which has been



LOOKING OVER CENTRAL PARK FROM 59TH STREET.

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charged with having no national art, should not develop a landscape art of its own. Landscape art is suited to the American temperament. It offers a field for the indulgence of the national fondness for doing things on a large scale. It presents so much variety that it cannot grow stale. It appeals not merely to the educated, but to all classes alike. Landscape architecture receives every year a more general recognition. It appears to be the only art which has not been developed so far as to fall under the influence of established conventions. Its possibilities are inestimable. The landscape architect works in both form and color. He draws upon all the seasons. He is not limited to a fixed scene, but may consider his composition from a hundred points of view. His finished work is not simply a bit of nature in arrest, but is planned to reap the advantages of shifting lights, of varying action of the elements. He constructs a thing of beauty that will last for all time, and yet it changes every year and every season. There is no other art whose products are at once so lasting and so varied.



Photograph by Taber.

HUNTINGTON FALLS, GOLDEN GATE PARK

The increasing popular appreciation of landscape architecture is even more significantly shown by all classes of people in the smaller cities, in towns, in villages, and in country places, than in the popular enjoyment of parks. In many a town almost every lawn is now well kept; the trees are trimmed, shrubbery is planted, growing flowers are arranged with taste. The florists' and the seedmen's business has enormously increased within a generation. The work of hundreds of societies for village improvement has given a stimulus to the care of yards that has been felt in every part of the country. It is a poor town that now does not have a flower-show.

Responding to the same popular impulse, State Governments, and especially the National Government, have laid out for perpetual pleasure-uses great tracts of forest and stretches of land of unusual natural beauty. Every year excursions to these great parks increase. Perhaps no travellers in search of rest ever, since the world began, got quite so keen a pleasure as the thousands of visitors get every year who go, even thousands of miles, to spend a period in the great national parks in the West. Not only do they come in direct contact with Nature in her grander manifestations, but

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Photograph by Taber.

JAPANESE GARDEN AT GOLDEN GATE PARK, SAN FRANCISCO.

they study there the more closely the wonder of great trees and rare shrubs and noble scenery.

In fact, the now almost universal love of nature-study is part and parcel of the same popular impulse. Popular books on birds sell in quantities as great as novels sold a generation ago. The outdoor study of birds means life under trees and the study of trees themselves; it means an artistic appreciation of nature.

The landscape architect, as he now practises his art, is the most distinctly American and democratic artist that we have evolved; and Mr. Frederick Law Olmsted, by his own works and by the impulse that he gave to the art, is perhaps surer of a perpetual fame than any other artist of any kind that we have produced; and there is a great chance for at least a few great careers, memorable and perhaps immortal careers, for the greatest minds in working out the opportunities that every part of our wonderful domain offers.

A critic of literature, a man hopeless of democratic development in general, has been



Photograph by Taber.

STOW LAKE, GOLDEN GATE PARK, SAN FRANCISCO.

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Photograph by Alfred Stieglitz.

AN ICY NIGHT.

Looking along the edge of Central Park, New York.

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credited with saying that there is nothing picturesque in the United States — that the Atlantic coast-line is commonplace. Such an opinion emphasizes by contrast a strong popular impulse and a most powerful artistic movement. The time is not far off when along a large part of the Atlantic seacoast will be parks and pleasure-places and private grounds that show Nature in her various moods (hundreds and hundreds of such places



Photograph by Charles C. Cook.

SOUTH LAGOON, LINCOLN PARK, CHICAGO.

almost every village its improvement society — all the way till he reach the region of the great national parks, and go on to the Pacific slope, which, from the utter wildness of half a century ago, is fast responding to the best landscape gardening in the world.

It will be many a generation before the whole continental area will present a continuous succession of parks and gardens; but the impulse has already become so general as to warrant the expectation that the time will come when no other large area of the earth's surface will present such varied and beautiful aspects. Men are at work in many places, as in the Arnold Arboretum in Boston. A visitor expressed his admiration of the hills of trees. "Not yet, not yet," a landscape artist replied; "come here a hundred years hence, and you will see the plan worked out. Then it will be beautiful."



Photograph by Williams.

MINNEHAHA FALLS, THE PARK, MINNEAPOLIS.

are undergoing improvement now); and a traveller will be able to ride from the coast, seeing not the ugly back door of cities, but beautiful scenery about the railroad stations. If he go by Niagara Falls, he will find this great wonder under the care of the state, and the space about it a state reservation. If he cross the mountains by another route, he may pass great areas of mountain parks. Every city that he passes through has its great park systems;



Photograph by Charles C. Cook.

SUNSET IN LINCOLN PARK, CHICAGO.

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A WONDERFUL FEAT OF ADVENTURE

A YOUNG ENGLISHMAN'S JOURNEY THE WHOLE LENGTH OF AFRICA, FROM THE CAPE TO CAIRO—HOW A COLLEGE LAD ON A VACATION RAMBLE DID WHAT THE PONDEROUS EXPLORERS HAVE FAILED TO DO

BY

CHALMERS ROBERTS

NO one who knows the splendid youth of England would have been surprised to learn that a young man from Cambridge, twenty-four years old, had conceived the idea of going on an expedition of his own the whole distance of Africa, from south to north. But that he should have succeeded is nothing less than marvellous. Those who were thrilled by the stories of Stanley, with his force of armed men, can scarcely realize when they recall his bloody chapters, that this gentle-mannered young man took his white umbrella and a few servants and walked through darkest Africa with a smile and a kindly manner as his chief weapons. No wonder there was a furore in England last spring over this unexpected achievement and that much attention was paid to its hero on his arrival in the United States in November. He came here with his bride on his way to Australia.

On February 28, 1898, Ewart Scott Grogan and Arthur Henry Sharp landed at Beira, the port of Rhodesia, East Africa, ostensibly on one of those big game hunting expeditions which carry Englishmen to the furthest corners of the earth. Mr. Grogan had been in the Matabele war two years before and was familiar with the veldt from Cape Town to the Zambesi. Both were great hunters, and if they had any ideas of exploration before them, they wisely kept silent about them, for failure is unpardonable. In the heart of one of them was a secret purpose breathed only to a single man at home, and not even then broached to his comrade, a secret so gigantic that he was almost afraid of it himself. Before him stretched hundreds of miles never traversed by man, and beyond that, even where white men had formerly been known, the long stretches of the Nile were again in savage hands. Yet eighteen months after starting north Mr. Grogan set foot on the platform of the railway station at Cairo, where the people of all nations meet. Half the way he had come alone, his friend refusing to continue the journey into the deadly Dinka swamps south of Fashoda.

He has told the story in his book, and no story has been so welcomed in England since Nansen's. They love a tale of travel, those English! And who ever had a better one to tell, one more likely to move the feet of the young men who go up and down the world? Even with a story which tells itself, there is often cause to marvel at the style in which Mr. Grogan writes, particularly after he tells you that before he wrote this book he had never set pen to paper for literary ends unless one counts Greek verses at college.

Perhaps the man best fitted to appreciate this great feat is the veritable wizard of the dark continent himself, who has inspired cabinets and emperors to lend him aid and who, unwittingly, fired Mr. Grogan's courage. Here is an extract from a characteristic letter that Cecil Rhodes wrote to Mr. Grogan, from the Government House at Buluwayo, on September 7, 1900:—

"I must say I envy you, for you have done that which for centuries has been the ambition of every explorer; namely, to walk through Africa from south to north. The amusement of the whole thing is that a youth from Cambridge during his vacation should have succeeded in doing that which the ponderous explorers of the world have failed to accomplish. There is a distinct humour in the whole thing. It makes me the more certain that we shall complete the telegraph and railway, for surely I am not going to be beaten by the legs of

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EWART SCOTT GROGAN.

The first African explorer and traveller to traverse the continent from the Cape to Cairo.

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a Cambridge undergraduate. Your success the more confirms one's belief. The schemes described by Sir William Harcourt as "wild cat" you have proved are capable of being completed even in that excellent gentleman's lifetime.

What a good letter! Grogan's achievement was more or less of a joke upon Mr. Rhodes himself. There was no more greatly surprised man in the world when he learned of the lad's arrival in Egypt — not even Captain Dunn, who met Grogan by chance just after he emerged from a four hundred mile tramp through the Dinka swamp and Nuerland, and mistook him for one of a party of French hunters in the neighborhood. Think of the shock to a typically phlegmatic Englishman when he met a man on the upper Nile, and after some casual conversation about game, asked him where he came from, and heard him say "the Cape"!

What young Grogan quietly did alone, several large expeditions were setting out to do almost immediately behind him. There was a large party under Major Gibbons which came in six months after Grogan, having traversed practically the same route. Their disappointment when they reached the upper Nile stations and had the bloom taken off their pride must have been sadly amusing. Still more boastful was the start of Lionel Décle, the young Frenchman who exposed the abuses in his home army at the time of the Dreyfus trial. He set out with a great flourish of trumpets and a huge caravan as the envoy of the London *Daily Telegraph* to be the first to explore the line of the Cape-to-Cairo railroad. His expedition also had the patronage of Mr. Rhodes to the extent of £1000. He is still unheard from, in the heart of Africa. It is needless to say that the *Daily Telegraph* was strangely silent in the chorus of delight which greeted the news of Grogan's arrival in Egypt.

As to personal appearance, the young traveller is in no way disappointing. He is the tall, muscular, pink-and-white young man that you would choose from a hundred to do what he has done. You find it hard to believe him when he tells you how he has suffered from African fever; and you wonder still more to hear how even now, when the fever excites him, his mind reverts to the awful journey through the Dinka swamp, where days were maddening and nights hideous. Often, at the time, he thought that he was going mad. Day followed day in the trackless jungle when the life of every man of them depended on the truthfulness of the compass. Even the black men could not stand the strain: two of the porters went insane and had to be driven along handcuffed at the point of the spear. The porterage was reduced to the barest necessaries; the whole party was only fourteen, and there were troubles enough to have justified even the kindest of leaders in leaving crazy men behind. The fierce sun was directly overhead and gave no aid to direction. Perhaps the compass was false and they were travelling in a never ending circle. The atmosphere, the slush, the vegetation, even the multitudes of insects, were so poisonous that perhaps they were all insane and had lost their original purpose. And the absolute lack of companionship for the leader was no light addition to his distracted mind. He says that the myriads of mosquitoes furnished some kind of stupefying injection which caused him to rise utterly dazed in the morning after a bad night with them. Two of his negroes were bitten to death, literally sucked dry, by them. To hear him tell of these terrible experiences (and he tells of them very vividly) as if the whole thing were a huge joke, is an experience not soon to be forgotten.

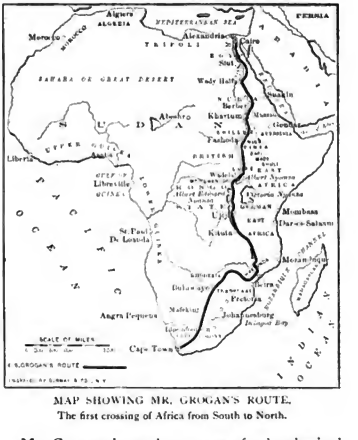
The expedition was planned first of all in search of sport. Its leader says that as a child he had four ambitions, — to slay a lion, a rhinoceros, and an elephant, and to see Tanganyika. Had it not been for big game hunting, no earthly consideration would have induced him to put his foot one mile south of the Pyramids. Yet the scientific results of his journey are surprising and varied. The geographical results include an exploration of the swamps on the Pungwe River, made as a sort of spur on the main journey north. The explorers found the face of this whole stretch of land much changed since it was last described nine years ago. There seems to be a general drying up of the swampy plains. Where natives, according to former accounts, went from village to village in canoes, there is now dry land with only a few deep water holes. Their boats rot on dry plains, and a few surviving crocodiles lead a precarious

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existence. Mr. Grogan thinks that as remote as this is from the centre of volcanic disturbance, there is a constant and rapid process of upheaval. The quantity of game in this country, called the Goronzoza country, was found to be incredibly large.

The real trip forward began on October 28, 1898, when the expedition left the Zambesi River for the north. The next exploration of geographical value covered the mountain mass of Chiperoni, previously visited by only one party of big game hunters. The stay of the explorers on the shores of Lake Tanganyika was considerably disturbed by fever and sunstroke, but at last they proceeded up the valley of the Rusisi River, which flows out of Lake Kivu. Thence, for hundreds of miles, they made many additions to the map. They noted the progress, both material and territorial, of the Germans at the expense of the Belgians, rival colonists in this region. A very complete map was made of the eastern shore of Lake Kivu. In fact, Grogan's map of the whole country between Lake Tanganyika and Lake Albert Edward is a great advance over all previous records.

An amusing discovery was made in regard to Mount Mfumbiro, which has been marked on most maps, with the height given, and which played an important part in the British-German treaty negotiations. Grogan declares that it existed only in the imaginations of the learned gentlemen who met in conferences and solemnly changed maps, regardless of the real territory in dispute. The valley of the Rutchuru and the shores of Albert Edward Nyanza were carefully traversed. It was when Lake Ruisamba was reached that Mr. Sharp decided to return home. After this, Grogan proceeded alone to Albert Lake. At Bohr the little expedition reached the edge of the impenetrable Dinka swamp. Throwing away everything but absolute necessaries, the young explorer, accompanied by only thirteen men, and with many misgivings, started on his four hundred mile tramp through an unknown region. Here also new maps were made and new names given, a hitherto unmarked channel of the river being called the Gertrude Nile. After this there was still the hopeless stretch of Nuerland to be covered, before the Sobat branch of the Nile was reached and the solitary journey ended.



MAP SHOWING MR. GROGAN'S ROUTE.
The first crossing of Africa from South to North.

Mr. Grogan brought a mass of ethnological information, having carefully investigated and described the various tribes with which he came in contact. And a motley collection of giants, pygmies, and cannibals they are. He had very little trouble even with the worst of them. There were only two mortal combats, and only once during the whole journey was it necessary to take food without paying for it. Usually the proffers of cloth, beads, and even jubilee medals had the desired effect of bringing about a sort of dumb market day. This experience is the reverse of former African methods, culminating in Stanley's idea that the only way successfully to cross the continent was with an army which could lay waste everything before it. Where Stanley says of a people, "Marching to Wadelai would only be a useless waste of ammunition," Grogan found them perfectly tractable, and did not use one of the twenty rounds of ammunition that he had brought to meet them.

The return to England carried the young explorer through the more perilous jungles of social attention, even to reading a paper before a full meeting of the Royal Geographical Society, where the President, in thanking him, ingenuously hoped that he would soon return with another paper of still greater interest and value.

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LORD ROBERTS OF KANDAHAR.

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LORD ROBERTS

THE PERSONALITY AND THE CAREER OF GREAT BRITAIN'S FOREMOST SOLDIER—THE CRUCIAL INCIDENTS IN HIS RECORD—HIS CONDUCT OF THE WAR IN AFRICA—HIS FIRM HOLD ON BRITISH AFFECTION

BY

WINSTON SPENCER CHURCHILL

IT is only in rare circumstances that we are enabled to read the autobiography of a great man in his lifetime; and the reader who may wish to study the work and character of Lord Roberts cannot do better than to read the Field Marshal's own account of his career entitled "Forty-one Years in India." The style throughout is simple and not ungraceful, nor does it stand in any need of the extenuation which the author sets forth in the preface, that he is not a man of letters but a soldier. Indeed, as the tale unfolds itself and the reader becomes drawn more and more into sympathy with the brave, honest, kindly man whose fortunes are described, the very plainness of the writing will be found to exert a charm of its own, apart from the facts with which it deals. Although it is as a record of facts that the book should be regarded, the force of tremendous facts lifts the style in several passages of military chronicle to a sober grandeur which cannot fail to produce a powerful impression on the receptive mind.

The great popularity which has always surrounded like a halo the personality of Roberts, and the extraordinary interest which the modern world takes in records of war, guaranteed the book an extensive sale, but the result must have surpassed all expectations. Within three years of its publication, and apart from the stimulus of recent events, "Forty-one Years in India" passed in its most expensive form through thirty-two editions, was translated into French and German, was prepared in Braille type for the blind, and occupied a position on the shelves of almost every library. It is curious to reflect that this book was written by the author and accepted by the public as the record of a life's work. It was the beginning and the end of a long story, early difficulties, opportunities seized, advances made, fortune won, and retirement in calm old age amid honors and respect. How little could the writer have foreseen the glory which gleamed behind the dark clouds of the future, which, throwing into relative obscurity all those years of work and achievement on which he justly based his reputation, was to make "Forty-one Days in Africa" the most memorable period of his life.

Those who read the two thick volumes will find them a stirring record of character and success, and may follow the small alert figure as he presses forward on his road from the day when he sailed as a cadet for ten years' exile to India to his final departure from Bombay leaving behind him the greatest reputation possessed in that land of military caste by any British soldier since Lord Clive.

It is always superfluous to write about the courage of commanders, since so many ordinary soldiers are quite fearless, and if it is worth while for the private to run the risk, how much more is it worth while for the general? But the good luck which carries them safely through a thousand perils must command our interest and perhaps excite our wonder. We read in Roberts's pages of many stirring fights and hairbreadth escapes. His first experience of actual war was gained in the Indian Mutiny. Four successive times in July, 1857, during the siege of Delhi, or perhaps it would be more appropriate to call it at this time "the defence of the ridge," did he accompany one of the columns which operated towards the Subzi Manzi. On each occasion the little force returned with nearly two hundred killed and wounded out of a

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total of about eight hundred. The fourth time he was wounded by a bullet which struck him in the back, and would have killed him "but for the fact that a leather pouch for caps which I usually wore in front had somehow slipped round to the back; the bullet passed through this before entering my body and was thus prevented from penetrating very deep." He next took part in the building of the batteries only five hundred yards from the walls, preparatory to the assault on the great city of mutineers. He relates many more adventures during this dangerous service. On the desperate day when the walls were stormed he hurried from his battery to share the fighting after the attack had succeeded. He escaped unhurt through all the street fighting that preceded the capture of the city. Finally he "attached himself" to the party of riflemen who had to rush through the door of the Moghul fort after it had been blown down. Such were his fortunes at Delhi.

From Delhi he moved with a column of troops to Agra on the way to join the army forming for the relief of Lucknow. And so he passed into the other set of fierce operations which were in progress. Action after action was fought; the surprise of Agra, the Alambagh, the relief of Lucknow, the engagement at Cawnpore, Khundaganj, Miahganj, Chakar Kothi, and skirmishes innumerable, — through all he preserved his life, while comrades were struck down right and left day by day, and the belief grows upon the reader, as it must have grown upon the man himself, that some strong hand, quite different from capricious Chance, was preserving him alone in all the army, for mighty deeds in future days.

At Khundaganj he won the Victoria Cross, which as soldiers think — and they should know — is the greatest honor in the gift of the British Crown. His was not a deed which displayed any surprising military skill, or ability to profit amid the clash of arms by some scientific error of the enemy. He won fame by sheer physical strength and personal prowess. The cavalry were dispersed among the scattering fugitives. A comrade was hard pressed. Lieutenant Roberts rode to his assistance and cut down his antagonist. Turning he perceived a mutineers' standard guarded by two Sepoys. He attacked them, sabred one man, "The other put his musket close to my body and fired; fortunately for me it missed fire, and I carried off the standard. For these two acts," says a modest footnote, "I was awarded the Victoria Cross." The matter is then dismissed and never alluded to again. Indeed, when it was necessary for me to verify this reference, it was a long time before I could find the passage, so insignificant a place did Roberts allow his act and its reward.

The interval of nearly twenty years which elapsed between the mutiny and the next serious war was passed by Roberts on the staff of the army in the Quartermaster General's department. He took part in the severe fighting of the Umbeyla campaign of 1863 which arose out of the first quarrel with the Bunerwals, a frontier tribe who were not finally beaten until Sir Bindon Blood marched through their country in 1897. He served on the lines of communication of the army operating in Abyssinia in 1868, and lastly he held a small command in the Lushai expedition in 1871. His continued distinguished service whether in the office or the field and these opportunities carried him through the various lower grades of the army, and while he had embarked upon the Indian Mutiny as a subaltern officer, the outbreak of the dispute with the Amir of Afghanistan found him a brigadier-general.

Sir Frederick Roberts's part in the Afghan war divides itself into three sets of operations: the daring advance through the Shutagardan to Kabul, in the face of stubborn opposition, without communication with India and dependent for supplies only upon a hostile country; the fierce fighting following the rebellion of the tribes, the actions in the Chardeh valley and the defence of Sherpur; and thirdly the march from Kabul to Kandahar and the defeat of Ayoub Khan. It would be a pleasant and profitable task, but one far beyond the scope of the present sketch, to follow the general through the two years of war, from the morning his brigades stormed the Peiwar Kotal to the decisive victory at Kandahar. The account of all these things and of many others, the descriptions of the actions and the explanation of the strategy, will be found set forth with admirable impar-

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tiality, though there are a few disputed passages, in the pages of the autobiography.

On the conclusion of the Afghan campaigns he returned to England and was received with every sign of welcome and respect. Cheering crowds awaited him when he landed at Dover. He was created a Baronet, and a sum of £12,500 sterling was voted to sustain the title. He was offered the thanks of both Houses of Parliament. He was presented with the freedom of cities. Besides the ordinary medal for the war a special star was struck to commemorate his famous march to Kandahar. Even the horse he rode, "Vonolol," was decorated by the Queen.

The prizes of war are the greatest that a man may wish. The artist who has painted a wonderful picture, the philosopher who has written some mighty book, the statesman who may have carried a measure which gives food or freedom to millions, all their triumphs pale before the triumphs of the successful soldier. Yet it is easy to remain unsatisfied by undiscriminating praise however lavishly bestowed. Lord Roberts, who was in no way altered by his good fortune, and continued quiet, restrained, and matter-of-fact, was astonished at the popular opinions about his campaigns. He expostulates mildly.

"It surprised me very much to find that the kind people by whom I was so greatly honoured invariably appeared to think the march from Kabul to Kandahar was a much greater performance than the advance on Kabul the previous autumn, while, to my mind, the latter operation was in every particular more difficult, more dangerous, and placed upon me as the Commander infinitely more responsibility."

And again, —

"I could only account to myself for the greater amount of interest displayed in the march to Kandahar, and the larger amount of credit given to me for that undertaking, by the glamour of romance thrown around an army of ten thousand men lost to view, as it were, for nearly a month, about the fate of which uninformed speculation was rife and pessimistic rumours were spread, until the tension became extreme, and the corresponding relief proportionately great when that army reappeared to dispose at once of Ayoub and his hitherto victorious troops."

While Lord Roberts was in England on the crest of the wave of public confidence and affection, the Boer war of 1881 reached its shameful climax in the fight at Majuba Hill. The cry was raised that he should be sent to retrieve the situation, and at a few hours' notice the general started for the Cape, with the rank of Governor of Natal and Commander-in-Chief in South Africa. He arrived at Cape Town to command an expedition of some ten thousand men, and met with a great surprise. An officer who travelled out with him on his staff described the event to me. As the ship came to her moorings, a small boat was heard to be approaching through the night. The soldiers on board shouted out, "What's the news of the war?" Back across the waters floated the fatal word which was to cause so much misery and bloodshed in South Africa, "Peace." "A peace," says Lord Roberts, writing in 1895, "alas, without honour, to which may be attributed the recent regrettable state of affairs in the Transvaal." The Government had telegraphed inviting the general to take a fortnight's rest to relieve the monotony of the voyage. Roberts, however, declined, and sailed for home within twenty-four hours, disgusted at the "wild-goose chase," so he describes it, on which he had been sent, and still more pained by the humiliation cast upon the country of whose honor he had always been so jealous.

When in 1881 he returned to India, it was as a lieutenant-general to command the Madras army. What a change from the days of his first journey to the East to join the Native Field Artillery! "I was a supernumerary subaltern," he writes in his first chapter, "and nearly every officer in the list of the Bengal Artillery had over fifteen years' service." Distinction in war and the advantages of staff employment had carried him far ahead of his comrades on the long ladder of promotion. His services in the Mutiny were rewarded by a brevet majority on promotion to captain, which means that he obtained two steps at once, being made captain one day and major the next. Such a start turned to good advantage, together with his own personal character, had given him his command in the Afghan war, and his brilliant achievements there marked him as one of the foremost soldiers of the army. His reputation was improved by his command in Madras. At the end of 1885 the commander-in-chief's

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appointment fell vacant. The War Office were undecided between the claims of Sir Frederick Roberts and another distinguished general in England. But the Secretary of State for India, Lord Randolph Churchill, turned the scale in favor of the soldier of Indian fame, and Roberts became Commander-in-Chief, a position which he filled with honor until 1893. In 1892 he was created Baron Roberts of Kandahar and Waterford.

After Lord Roberts had returned from India, there seemed to be a very general impression that his active work as a soldier was done. He was promoted to the rank of Field Marshal, and appointed to the command of the Forces in Ireland. The influences at the War Office were mostly unfavorable to him. It was said that his whole life had been wrapt up in India, that he was unacquainted with any of the great matters of Army administration, and other similar reasons were advanced to justify his exclusion from the office of Commander-in-Chief of the army. Indeed, as is well known, the late Liberal administration had actually made up their minds to appoint General Sir Redvers Buller to that post in 1895 in direct supersession of both Field Marshals — Lord Wolseley and Lord Roberts.

The circumstances attending the Indian Frontier War of 1897 were scarcely favorable to Lord Roberts's chances of great employment. The Forward Policy with which he had been closely identified was held to be responsible for the spontaneous tribal movement which spread fire and sword through the Frontier valleys. The debates upon the subject were acrimonious. The Field Marshal availed himself of his rank as a peer to defend the Forward Policy in the House of Lords. He prepared his speech with great care, and committed the greater part of it to memory. When it was known that he intended to speak, general interest was excited. The House and the galleries were crowded. The speech was weighty in substance, effective in delivery, and occupied upwards of an hour. It discussed the question exclusively from the strategic point of view. The financial aspect — so inseparable from every Indian problem — was entirely and avowedly ignored. The Peers listened with profound attention, but though the statement was received with every appearance of respect, it failed to stem the currents of public opinion, which at that time were running strongly adverse to forward action on the Northwest frontier.

India became unfashionable. Public attention was next directed to the Nile, where a long and interesting enterprise was approaching its culmination. In this Roberts had no part. He was quite unconnected with Egypt or the Soudan, never having served in peace or war in those countries. Kitchener became the Man of the Hour, and after the victory of Omdurman, most exaggerated language was used respecting him and his achievements, not only by the newspapers, but by persons whose eminence requires that they should preserve a due sense of proportion. In a word, Roberts was under a temporary eclipse, and when the growing tension between Great Britain and the Transvaal turned men's minds to the possibilities of war with the Boers, the popular choice for the command of the British forces rested almost evenly between Buller and Kitchener. Roberts was forgotten.

The possibilities of the war soon grew into probability. But almost to the last the mass of the nation hoped for peace: nor was there any one who dreamed that the cloud that had appeared in the South, no bigger than a man's hand, would overspread the skies and rack the land with storm and thunder for so many months. People were sharply awakened to the realities of war by the operations in Natal which resulted, in less than a fortnight, in the whole army for the defence of that colony being flung back upon Ladysmith and locked up there. "Never mind," they said, "wait till our army comes." And presently the army did come. The astonishing difficulties which confronted Sir Redvers Buller on his arrival have not been understood by all who have written about the war. The tactics and nature of the enemy, the extraordinary power of modern rifles, the employment of heavy guns, the use of the spade, not one of these things was appreciated as they have since all been appreciated by the British commanders. We had to buy our experience with blood and grief.

The first act of the drama had begun with the invasion by the Boers of the British colo-

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nies. The unprotected territory was everywhere overrun and annexed to the Republican Dominions. The forces for the protection of Natal, Kimberley, and Mafeking were surrounded and closely invested in their entrenched camps. Then the curtain fell for a brief interval. The next act began with the tides of invasion coming to a full stop. Troops had arrived. "So far and no farther" was everywhere the motto. Joubert abandoned his scheme of raiding South Natal and was content to fortify the line of the Tugela. Olivier strengthened himself at Stormberg. De la Rey observed the growing forces at Orange River Bridge. Cronje blockaded Mafeking. More troops arrived. The tide began to turn.

In the second week of December the British troops were everywhere advancing. The hopes of the British rose high. The sharp fighting between Orange River and Kimberley — Belmont, Graspan, and the passage of the Modder — seemed to show that the Boers could not arrest the march of the British columns. But what a surprise was in store! On the 9th of December Lord Methuen was repulsed with heavy loss, especially among the famous Highland Brigade, at Magersfontein. On the 10th Gatacre was broken at Stormberg and fell back almost to Queenstown. And on the 15th Buller, in whom all hopes were centred, was defeated with a loss of ten guns and twelve hundred men at the battle of Colenso.

Thus within the space of a single week all the forces which the British Government had considered sufficient not only to relieve the beleaguered towns, but also to clear the invaded territory and subdue the Boers, were cast backward in blood and disaster.

The news of Colenso was the climax of misfortune, and the nation writhed with exasperation. Every one was anxious to do the right thing. Opinion was divided whether it would more befit the national dignity to let the defeated generals have other opportunities. "Have confidence," was the cry, and it might have prevailed. But Death himself had called aloud the name of Roberts, and all eyes turned in sympathy and expectation to the iron-gray figure in the Royal Hospital at Dublin, whose head was bowed in bitter sorrow. His only son, the youth who was to sustain the coronet won in the field and carry on the already honorable name, had been killed at Colenso; killed, moreover, under circumstances of extraordinary gallantry which had won him the Victoria Cross, and seemed to show that not only was he stamped in every line and feature with his father's personality, but that he inherited the same lion heart. Then people remembered Lord Roberts's former work, that he had commanded greater armies in the field and seen more war than any general in South Africa, that he was to have settled this matter with the Boers some twenty years before. What influence popular feeling has upon the executive I cannot presume to know. Let the fact suffice. The Committee of National Defence met and deliberated. That very afternoon Lord Roberts was offered the direction of the campaign. The Commander-in-Chief — it was a needless procedure — learned of the appointment next morning from the columns of the newspapers. There was an interval of a few days when the general was very busy, settling his private affairs and reaching his hands out here and there to find the men he wanted on his staff. Although the official pick of the army had already been sent to the front, he knew where others might be found. The country was in no mood to hear, nor was the War Office anxious to offer, any objection to his choice. "Bobs" should have his men; let regulations and seniority stand aside. From far and wide through all the beats of the Empire, and from beyond its bounds, they came — Kitchener, the Handy Man, from the sultry heat of Khartoum; Nicholson, knight of sword and pen, from Calcutta; Neville; Chamberlain, the confidential secretary, from the Khyber; Henderson, the strategist (he who wrote the "Campaign of Fredericksburg" and the "Life of Stonewall Jackson"), from his professional chair among the benches of the Staff College; Burnham, the famous American scout, from the snows of Klondike. Judge of a man by his judgment of men. Roberts knew what sort he needed, and had them ready at his fingers' ends.

He found also occasion during these last few days in England to visit her Majesty at Windsor, and might have been cheered by the knowledge that his Sovereign shared in his grief for the past and had all his confidence

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in the future. Then came the day of departure. The great concourse who waited on the quays and pier to see him off were singularly silent. The shouts that acclaim a war were over. Those that hail a victory had not yet begun. The general, dressed in deep mourning, stood bareheaded for a few minutes on the bridge, there was a farewell cheer, and the ship started forward on her voyage. It was the same vessel — the *Dunottar Castle* — which two months before had borne Sir Redvers Buller from the same jetty to the war in the South. Towards what fortunes was she leading his successor? And there were many whose hearts wavered at the thought.

Lord Roberts promptly landed at Cape Town in January and immediately applied himself to the important business of reorganizing the army and preparing to strike at the enemy. How hard he worked! Snapshot photographs reveal the extraordinary "all aliveness" of the little Field Marshal. You see him walking with the superabundant appearance of energy of some magnificent horse, impatient for the chase. His physical strength shamed men twenty years younger than he. His endurance and capacity for work surpassed all, even the hard general of the Nile. If he put his hand on a man's arm, the grip of every individual finger was felt. His manner was unruffled, he rarely frowned, but when he did, generals obeyed without demur. His eyes, so people noticed, had a curious power of conveying the strongest emotions, even though the face remained perfectly motionless. Sometimes they blazed, and there seemed to be hot yellow fire behind them. Then men found it best to speak up straight and clear and make an end quickly. At others there was a steel-gray glitter, quite cold and uncompromising, which had a most sobering effect on those who saw it. But more often his eyes twinkled brightly with kindness or pleasure, and officers who had been to see him returned to work with redoubled energy for "Bobs."

It has been said that "genius is an infinite capacity for taking pains." I should hesitate to accept that as an explanation for all cases. But if it be true of any, then it is probably true of Lord Roberts's powers. Great care and exhaustive thought are the two most powerful influences to which he has owed his glory and good fortune. The tireless attention to little things, the undiscouraged pursuit and study of an idea and all its developments, is as much the secret of success in war, as the bright imagination from which the idea itself is born. A great officer, now perhaps Lord Roberts's most trusted lieutenant and who was once his aide-de-camp, said to me one day: —

"He thinks everything out himself. Once in India he sent me to take some of his horses from Bangalore to the Northwest Provinces. I was used to travelling in India, spoke Hindustani, and generally thought I could take care of myself and the horses too. I was therefore surprised when the Chief handed me a sheet of paper with all kinds of instructions written out upon it. The horses were to go by such and such a route. They were to be taken out of the train and exercised at such and such a place. They were to go on by the down express at 7.30 that night. If the night train could not pull horse boxes, the morning train was to be taken. This might mean missing the connections at Manmar Junction. In which case, etc., etc. All of which," said the former aide-de-camp, "I thought extremely unnecessary. Well, curiously enough, two or three hitches which he had contemplated actually occurred. You can't think what a help it was to me to know exactly what I was to do, and I found that the plan he had chosen was in every case the best, costing less both in time and money than any alternative."

It is not intended to assert the principle that commanders in the field should waste their time amid unnecessary details, or fail to grasp that system of devolution, without a thorough comprehension of which no man, however able, is fit to manage a great enterprise of war, of business, or of government. But upon the other hand the power of giving precise yet all-embracing orders only belongs to those whose brains are not irritated by the necessity of dealing with scores of obstinate facts, and of thinking their schemes out to the very last detail. It was a faculty which Napoleon certainly exhibited in a wonderful degree. Much besides is of course required to make a man a general, still more to make a general an Emperor. Lord Roberts certainly has this habit of mind very strongly developed. Nothing could exceed the care with which his Secret Instructions were prepared. When a great operation was designed it was his practice to give such orders to all the independent commanders involved. In

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a war fought over a vast extent of country as many as nine and ten separate forces were sometimes moving in combined and simultaneous action. But every general had his own special Secret Instructions, drawn up by the Commander-in-Chief himself, and very often in his own handwriting.

He infused this personal element into the administration of the army and the conduct of the war from the hour he landed in Cape Town.

Every morning, in camp or quarters, before it was daylight, he was at his desk. He personally supervised every department, decided every important and many unimportant questions, and controlled the whole organization of the great army which was being drawn from a dozen countries and lay scattered across a continent. In the largest operations of war where forces equal in numbers to several corps are employed, the Commander-in-Chief is often among his principal generals scarcely more than *primus inter pares*. Roberts was *facile princeps*. But besides bearing this heavy burden of business and responsibility upon his shoulders, he found time and energy for all manner of other affairs. He conducted much of his correspondence himself, writing long letters with his own hand to comparative or total strangers; to the Bishop who had written a prayer suitable for soldiers in time of war, to the casual acquaintance who sent him a horseshoe, to the schoolboy who complained that his parents would not let him fight on account of his youth. He inspected guns, stores, and men as they streamed out of the troop-ships. He visited the hospitals, finding a smile and a kindly word for the wounded — Boer and Briton alike. He spent the best part of one whole afternoon upon the hospital ship *Maine*, examining her fittings and admiring the cunning and generosity with which she was arranged. He discussed political questions with the High Commissioner. He accorded personal interviews — ten minutes' undivided attention — to numberless people, soldiers, civilians, Dutchmen and British. When did he find time to think? Yet all this while a deep and intricate scheme was developing in his brain. The fleeting weeks had slipped by, preparations were approaching completion, and the moment of action drew swiftly near.

The reader who has not followed the war with a soldier's care must try to grasp the general shape of the military situation at this time. The fire of war burned sullenly along a thousand miles of south and eastern frontier, and far away in the north and west isolated conflagrations smoked and glittered. Plumer and Baden Powell were fighting, as it were, in another world, and nothing that might be done by the armies in Natal or the Cape Colony could help or damage them. Ladysmith was slowly starving to a surrender that seemed worse than death. Buller had struck a second time at the terrible line of unfordable river and entrenched mountain that fended off relief, and his troops had recoiled with sulky discipline and heavy loss from Spion Kop. Gatacre maintained a precarious outpost line across the Boer front at Stormberg. French had woven a thin curtain of cavalry around three sides of Colesburg. Methuen glowered at Cronje on the Modder River, and Kimberley impatiently clamored for relief.

Lord Roberts believed that by invading the Free State and advancing upon Bloemfontein he would draw off some of the Boers from the Natal front, and perhaps enable Sir Redvers Buller to relieve Ladysmith. But his own first objective was Kimberley. When Methuen's army — little more than a division — had been brought to a standstill in the middle of December before the fortified lines of the Boer covering force, the troops had withdrawn to their camp on the banks of the Modder, and had dug trenches. There, within long-range gunshot of the enemy's position, they had remained ever since, and meanwhile the Dutch used their spades industriously and looked forward for another chance to use their rifles. The Boer lines had indeed become so long that they extended almost around both flanks of the British position at Modder. Their strength was such as to make all question of a frontal attack foolish and futile. With what satisfaction then must Cronje and his Boers have watched the gradual yet steady concentration of troops upon their front? The mad blockaded soldiers were massing together in the very jaws of attack for their own destruction. But they totally miscalculated both the intentions of their antagonist and the strength and composition of his force.

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It must be admitted as wonderful that the secret was so well kept. The country swarmed with spies, and the Boers should have had all the information they required. Yet it is a fact that in spite of scouting, spies, and newspaper correspondents, French and his cavalry division were abstracted from around Colesberg — drawn off little by little during the nights — moved round by march and rail to the Modder River, a distance of several hundred miles, and their places taken by an infantry brigade without either the Boers in Colesberg itself or anywhere else realizing what had happened. The whereabouts of the Sixth Division was equally unknown or uncertain. The Dutch looked across toward the British camp and saw new areas of canvas or shelters rising day after day, and laughed to themselves — not without some shuddering, for they are a humane race so far as white people are concerned — to think of the reception they would give the English army next time it came.

Almost the last thing Lord Roberts did before embarking on his great enterprise was to set his pen to composing the despatch on the battle of Spion Kop. It is not proposed to discuss here the discretion or justice either of those remarks or of their publication. But it is a fact by which we may appreciate the level coolness of this man's mind, that he wrote these caustic comments at which military Europe has whistled upon a general whose reputation two months before had been at least equal to his own, before he had himself achieved any notable success, and when he was marching against the same formidable enemy who had already wrought so much that was unexpected.

In the beginning of the second week in February it seemed to us in the Army of Natal, that we had reached the darkest day in the war. We had been repulsed at Colenso. We had had to retire from Spion Kop. Sir Redvers Buller had declared that he held the key to Ladysmith, and we had attacked at Vaal Krantz believing that the supreme effort was to be made. After we had lost five hundred men this attack was broken off and the whole of our force marched sorrowfully back to the scene of our first failure. All this time Ladysmith was wasting and weakening from hunger, and it looked as if all attempts to save it would be now abandoned. At the best we were to have one more try "for honor's sake." The news from the western theatre of war was not encouraging. There had been an unsatisfactory skirmish near the Modder. Roberts had arrived, but it did not seem that his arrival made much difference. We did not then know what manner of man he was; we did not gauge the quality of Sir Redvers Buller's stubborn determination; and we did not understand that although the British soldier may be repulsed or recalled five times, he will attack again the sixth with unaltered vigor and resolve. Ladysmith must, we thought, surrender. Far-off lonely Mafeking could not possibly escape. Perhaps the folks at home would weary of the war, and change the government; or Foreign Powers would intervene, or God knows what would happen. Generally speaking it was an hour of gloom.

Suddenly as a stray shaft of sunshine pierces through a thundercloud, came a telegram from the Field Marshal. "Tell all ranks that I have this day invaded the Orange Free State with a large army, particularly strong in cavalry and guns." The news spread through the camp. The soldiers gathered together in little groups to discuss it. "Bobs is at 'em at last," they said. "Now we shan't be long." Three days later the news of the relief of Kimberley arrived. "French had captured five laagers." "French! How the devil did he get to Modder?" asked the officers. "We thought he was at Colesberg." Curiously enough the Boers were asking just the same question.

I remember the evening well. Buller had marched his army out to the east of the railway in preparation for his final attack. We had had an artillery duel during the day, and desultory and occasional shelling was still proceeding when the sun hid behind the blue jagged outline — like a great steel saw — of the Drakensberg Mountains. The smoke of a thousand cooking fires curled through the still air, as from post to picket, and bivouac to bivouac, orderlies rode about spreading the good news. And as it circulated battalion after battalion rose up and gave three resounding cheers, so that the Boers came out of their entrenchments — ugly-looking sand-

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bag works on which they had lavished three months' toil — and were doubtless mightily perplexed that men they had repulsed so often should cheer so loud. The next day, the 17th, at dawn, we began a general attack, and thereafter the guns did not stop firing for a single day till Ladysmith was relieved. Often checked, never again stopped, the army of Natal won its way forward literally yard by yard, and on the 27th the last position was stormed and Ladysmith was free. Our small force of about twenty-two thousand men had lost more than a quarter of its strength, which means hard fighting in this nervous age. But those who were not stricken themselves did not grudge the price, for they knew that an unprecedented disaster to the British arms had been averted. Nor was this the only British victory.

On the afternoon of the 14th, Lord Roberts, having perfected his plans, collected his principal cavalry officers and General French, and having withdrawn them to a private place, explained to them the details of the great cavalry movement which was to begin on the following day. When he had done he put away his maps, and turning to his cavalry leader, whose command at that time was not less than eight thousand horsemen and forty guns, said with a flashing eye, "Now, General, the day after to-morrow you must dine in Kimberley."

That night the whole army at Modder, leaving one single brigade among the deserted tents to pretend they were six, withdrew twenty miles to Ramdan, up to which point the other forces, smuggled away in the south, were marching. In thirty-six hours the concentration was complete. On the 16th the march began right outside the Boer enveloping lines, and by nightfall French had galloped through into Kimberley. It is not my present purpose to describe the military operations in any detail. Cronje, as every one knows, escaped the first clutch that was made at him. By a forced march in the dead of night he left his lines at Magersfontein and tried to place himself between Bloemfontein and the invaders. It became necessary to make a second clutch. The heads of the columns were turned eastward, the weary cavalry started off hot-foot from Kimberley, and the grip began to close again round the burgher army. Swiftly as the Boers moved, Roberts was before them. But this operation required that the British divisions should move fast, far from the railroad, while the floundering convoys struggled and sweated after them without much security or order. One great train of wagons with supplies for many days was captured and destroyed by the enemy. All the nice exact calculations for the march to Bloemfontein were upset. Was it possible to go on? Bobs interviewed his supply officer.

"Can you guarantee three-quarter rations?"

"No, sir."

"Can you guarantee half rations?"

"No."

"What can you do?"

"Something like two-fifths — taking one day with another — perhaps a little more."

The Field Marshal reflected — hard fighting, forced marches, starvation diet — then he said, "I think they'll do it."

And they did it — for him.

We catch several glimpses of him during this famous march — at least the equal of his march to Kandahar. At Paardeberg, when he arrives on the field to find the dead and wounded from the impetuous attack scattered about the field and is deeply shocked; at Poplar Grove, where he has spread his line of battle over fifteen miles of ground, and sits on a knoll at the exchange of signals and telegraphs, waiting for his net of cavalry to close round the enemy's force, and learns that through weary horses or mistaken orders the cast has failed. "Never mind" — no sign of vexation or disappointment. At Dreifontein a sidelight is thrown upon him. In the words of a witness before the Hospitals' Inquiry Commission: "I was wounded in both legs. They put me down in the sun for five hours. Lord Roberts came by and gave me water from his bottle. . . ."

At length Bloemfontein is reached successfully, and he finds time, amid many anxieties, to make suitable speeches, exactly the right thing, — to the Guards Brigade: "I would have liked to lead you into Bloemfontein, but instead I will lead you into Pretoria"; to the newspaper correspondents, whom he always treated with scrupulous courtesy (one flash of good-natured irony, "I shall be interested, gentlemen, to read your criticisms.

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No doubt I shall profit by them."); and to the foreign *attachés*, who were strongly impressed — particularly the Russian — with his personality.

The dramatic and sudden turning of the tables, the conversion of defeat and disgust into almost inordinate triumph, produced an intense impression upon the public mind, and Roberts received the fullest measure of that high honor and admiration which vast educated communities can alone bestow. In the words of a letter written at the time by one well in touch with popular feeling: —

"We had been everywhere defeated. It seemed as if the greatest disasters must come upon us. The progress of the war was most unsatisfactory, and then suddenly this wonderful little Bobs appears, and all is changed as if it were by magic. There is nothing they would not do for him. The belief here is that he has saved the Empire, and he is looked upon as the greatest man in it."

That impression may be obscured by the swiftly moving clouds of modern opinion, but it is not impossible that history will some day revive it.

The next critical moment in the war occurs three months later, when the army comes to the Vaal River at Vereeniging. Railroad not repaired; communications threatened a hundred miles to the southward, threatened again two hundred miles to the southward, actually cut a few days later, a barren country and supplies running low. On the other hand the enemy are demoralized. Can we bounce them out of Johannesburg and Pretoria, circle of modern forts notwithstanding, or shall we wait a fortnight at the Vaal to secure our line, replenish our stores, rest our horses and travel-stained infantry — and let the enemy recover? Never. Forward at once. It was a daring stroke. When we arrived before Pretoria, we found a position which eight thousand Boers could have held indefinitely and forts which would have demanded regular siege — a matter of months. And we had but five or six days' food in the wagons, and Christian de Wet was tearing up the vital railway behind us; cutting the air-pipe between the diver and the surface. But Bobs was right again. The Boers were bluffed. The heights where they attempted some resistance were seized. By nightfall our cavalry approached the capital. At noon on the next day, mounted on an Arab horse, the gift of a prince of Inde, the Field Marshal, as he had promised, led the Guards into the Parliament Square.

The scene was a memorable one; the site was spacious and imposing. Within the quadrangle of high red sandstone buildings crowds of people had gathered, everywhere held back by thin brown lines of soldiers. Under the shadow of the old Dutch church, Lord Roberts, his generals, the great staff, and the foreign *attachés*, a fine cavalcade, sat on their horses, while the victorious army defiled. For four hours the stream of khaki and steel — light glinting on muddy waters — flowed unceasingly. The sun blaze, refracted from the red houses, threw a golden glitter upon everything. The jaunty merry music of the marches, the bursts of cheering, the continuous pulsating concussions of the drums, and under all yet above all, the monotonous rhythm of marching feet produced a profound impression on the mind. And when the old Flag flickered up to the top of the Parliament House, what with the memory of twenty years of shame and bitterness, "Remember Majuba, you dirty English," and the memory of thirty thousand good men and true scattered behind, dead, wounded, or diseased along the track of invasion, even the dullest, heaviest souls were powerfully stirred, and all men felt this was an hour to live.

Some one — a staff officer — turned to Lord Roberts when all was over.

"You must be a happy man to-day, sir."

"No," replied the Field Marshal, with a momentary expression of intense weariness, "not happy — thankful."

And the officer remembered the grave in Natal which had swallowed up a father's hope and pride.

Let us leave this scribbled sketch unfinished. Something of the likeness it may have caught, a twinkle of the eye, a characteristic pose, or the cut of the coat. To elaborate would be to destroy. The great artists of history will paint their solemn pictures with time and materials not at our disposal nor within our powers to use. Let us not smudge their canvas beforehand, but leave our sketch lying in the corner in the hope that it may perhaps suggest something to them, when they come to do their work.

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A CENTURY OF EXPLORATION

THE EARTH AS WE KNEW IT A HUNDRED YEARS AGO AND AS WE KNOW IT NOW — WHOLE CONTINENTS BROUGHT TO LIGHT — DISCOVERIES IN OCEANOGRAPHY — POLAR RESEARCH — THE TASKS YET LEFT FOR EXPLORERS

BY

CYRUS C. ADAMS

FELLOW OF THE AMERICAN GEOGRAPHICAL SOCIETY

TWO phases of geographic research distinguish the nineteenth century from its predecessors. The largest discoveries of the eighteenth century were made by sailors, — Cook, Carteret, Bougainville, Vancouver, and many others, — who brought to light the myriad islands of the oceans or delineated unexplored parts of coast lines. The largest discoveries of the nineteenth century, on the other hand, have been made in the interior of the great land masses. It has been the era of the study of the continents. The Cossack pioneers, in Russia's service, had crossed Siberia, but with this exception not a line of exploration had been run across Asia since Marco Polo in the thirteenth century till the second half of the nineteenth century brought forth its scores of Asian explorers. Nearly all our knowledge of the interior of Africa, Australia, and the larger part of North America is also the work of this century.

When Alexander von Humboldt described the travels which he began in South America in July, 1799, he ushered in a new era of exploration; for he taught geographers that exploration does not consist merely of topographic delineation of mountains, rivers, plains, and settlements, but that it includes many other factors that have a bearing upon human interests, — such as meteorology, climatology, the distribution of plants, and the nature of soils. He was the main pioneer influence in substituting scientific for superficial and unskilled exploration. Thus the nineteenth century has been not only the greatest era of the study of the land surface of the earth, but also of scientific discovery.

SOUTH AMERICA, AFRICA, AND AUSTRALIA

In their exploration, South America is the anomaly and Africa the wonder among the continents. South America is the only great region whose exploration on a large scale quickly followed European occupancy. The Amazon was known almost from its sources to its mouth, in the middle of the sixteenth century. Nearly all the coast cities on our maps were founded at that time, and a little later the Jesuits established their almost independent states in the heart of the continent; but to-day South America lags behind them all. Inner Africa, the geographical enigma fifty years ago, is better known. No railroad in Brazil penetrates so far inland as the African railroad to Matabeleland. South America is the part of the habitable world where most pioneer exploration remains to be done.

These facts are mainly the result of one potent influence that has enabled the nineteenth century to contribute most largely to detailed geographical knowledge. It was the desire of the European powers to acquire more lands, widen commerce, and spread civilization that, in the past fifty years, has placed in the field scores of very costly exploring enterprises, many on a military basis, and fitted for really scientific work on a scale far beyond the scope of private achievement. South America has been outside this field of rivalry. Her days of largest exploration were when Spain and Portugal were great colonial powers. But early in this century they lost that continent; and the republics which succeeded them, poor in purse and involved in many civil and external wars, have scarcely made the exploration of their own territories a state affair until within the past few years. The world knows far more of inner Africa to-day than the government at Bogota knows of the southeastern third of Colombia. Dr. Sievers has recently mentioned the fact that long series of meteorological observations in inner Africa are now

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available, while in large parts of South America — as in the llanos of Venezuela and most of the Amazon basin — there are no records of value for scientific deductions with regard to climate.

But the European nations did not enter upon this great task of studying the undeveloped continents till they received the impulse from the humble pioneers of discovery. Mr. Stanley says he thought Livingstone was an enthusiast and a visionary when they stood together on the shore of Tanganyika, and the great missionary-explorer, with uplifted hand trembling with weakness, told him the day was coming when the civilized nations would see the good in Africa and set about the reclamation of the continent. It was Livingstone, first of all, and his successors, who started the movement, which gathered volume and momentum till we see a continent one-third larger than our own parcelled out among the European powers, which have practically completed exploration on broad lines, and are studying it in detail.

Fifteen years ago the country back of the west coast of Australia was an unknown Sahara, through which only three or four travellers, at the risk of their lives, had pushed their way. Then it was discovered that this frightful waste was the treasure-house of Western Australia guarded from all intruders by thirst and famine. The entire topography of this spinifex-covered desert has now been revealed. This exploration was made possible by the fact that the great modern agent of civilization, the railroad, was pushed out into the desert at various points, so that thousands of men, with supplies daily replenished from the coast, may live there and find and develop the gold resources. This illustrates the fact that many inventions of the nineteenth century, which facilitate the development of little-known lands, have stimulated the work of discovery because they have made it easier to obtain substantial results for business as well as for science by exploratory enterprises.

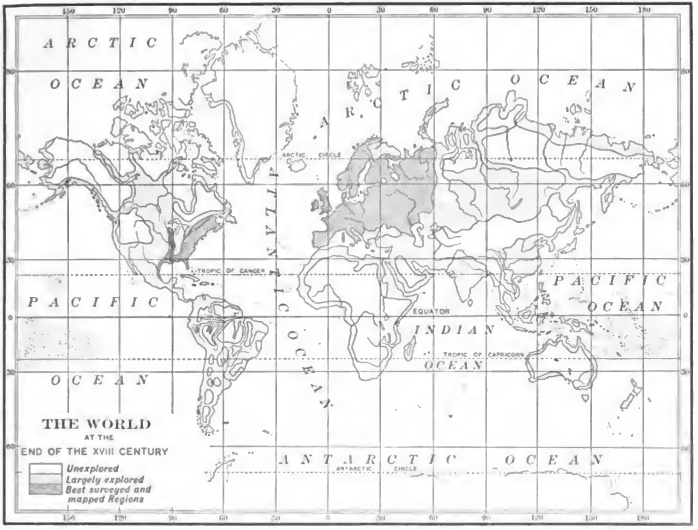
BETTER KNOWLEDGE OF OUR OWN COUNTRY

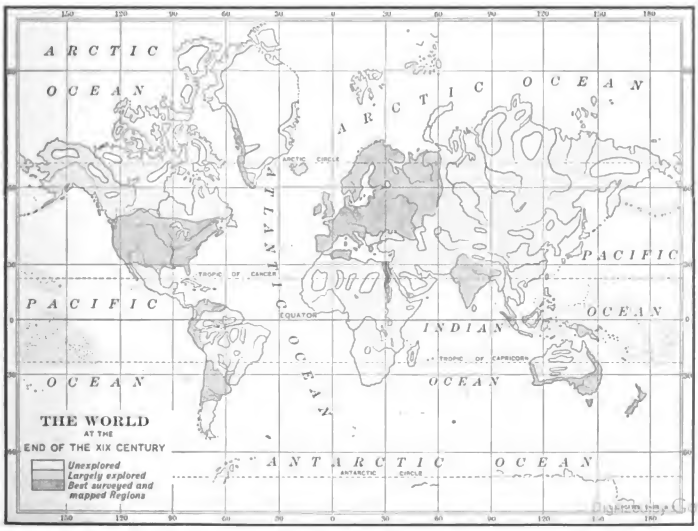
The text-books which our school children used one hundred years ago told them nothing of the Rocky Mountains or of the ranges of the Pacific slope. The exploration of three-fourths of our vast domain has been the work of our government and private citizens. In a broad sense, it has been well done; and in the past twenty-one years it has been succeeded by detailed studies and surveys which should be specially mentioned, for they are a phase of exploration which has been carried out on a large scale only in the nineteenth century, and which is essential to the production of the most accurate maps. No topographic feature or town or the distribution of economic resources can be mapped with the greatest attainable accuracy till these surveys are made. They involve, first, the preparation of a topographic map showing the relief or inequalities of the surface, the drainage, and the works of man, such as roads, railroads, boundaries, and towns; second, the geologic map, printed in colors upon the topographic base map, showing the distribution of the rock formations, soils, useful minerals, artesian waters, etc. These surveys and the resulting maps are one of the most scientific developments of geographic research in this century. They have been completed in all countries of Europe except in Norway, Spain, Turkey, and some of the Balkan States. The great survey of India is one of the monuments of cartography, and similar surveys are far advanced in Algeria and Tunis. The topographic work has been carried by our general government, with the assistance of a few States, into all the States and Territories, and nearly a third of our entire area has now been completed. The labor is enormous and costly, and many years will elapse before the whole country can be mapped with the refinement and accuracy that characterize the map sheets of the most of Europe.

MAPPING THE OCEAN

A ship left New York, in August last, to lay a cable between that port and the Azores. We could not have told, many years ago, that this submarine telegraph would rest, for a long distance, on the sea-floor at depths of sixteen thousand to twenty thousand feet, greater for the most part than in the case of any other North Atlantic cable. Oceanography, one of the largest departments of geographic science, may be said to be wholly a development of this century. It was not known, a century ago, that the sea-bottom, like the land, has its mountains, valleys, and plateaus. It was believed that life could not exist at depths below fifteen hundred feet;

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but we now know there are forms of life at the bottom of the deepest oceans. Ingenious appliances have been invented for exploring the depths of the sea, and the world has to-day a general idea of the contour of the ocean floor, and of the conditions of movement, temperature, salinity, and life that prevail at different sea-depths. Nearly all these additions to knowledge have been made in the past half century, and writers one hundred years from now will probably say that we hardly crossed the threshold in this field of investigation. The science of limnology is less than twenty-five years old. This is the study of lakes, their depths, color, transparency, life, and other characteristics. It has been widely pursued in Switzerland, France, and Germany, and, to some extent, in other countries.

BLANK SPACES ON THE MAP

The whole of North America south of sub-arctic latitudes has now been carefully explored, and the thirteen large areas in northern British America, to which Dr. Dawson referred as unknown, some ten years ago, have passed out of that category or been greatly reduced in size by such work as Ogilvie has done on the upper Yukon, Low in Labrador, and the Tyrrell brothers in the Barren Lands. Next to Europe, North America is the best-explored part of the world, though less than sixty years ago more than half the continent was not so well known as most of Africa is to-day. It is only a question of time when all the habitable territory of the United States and Canada will be as thoroughly studied and mapped as that of the European states.

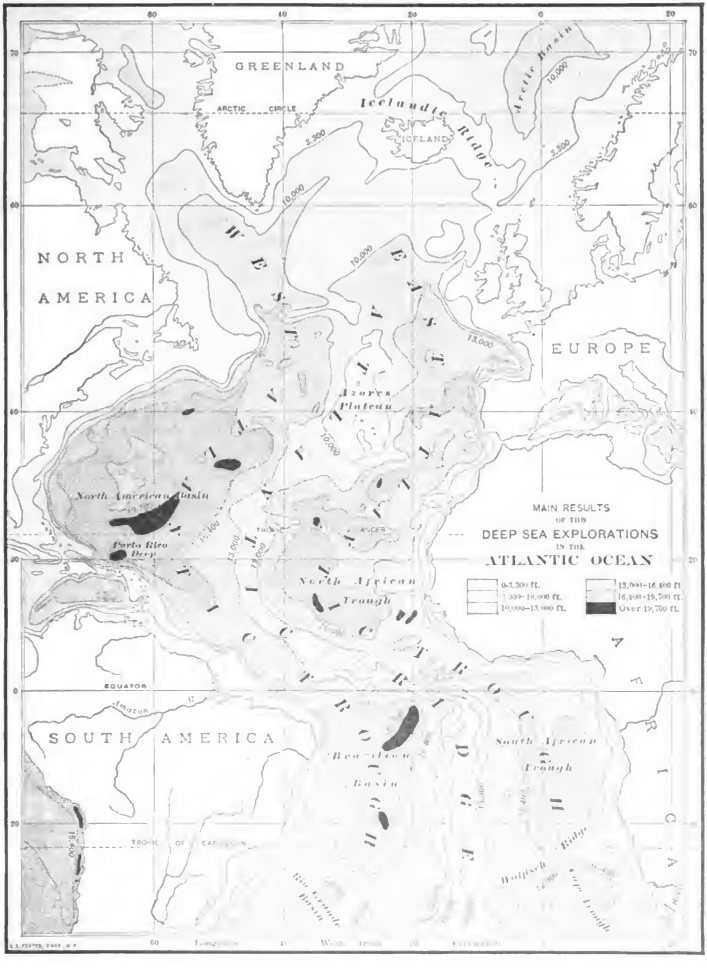
That Central America still offers a large field to the explorer is shown by the fruitful work of Carl Sapper, who, in his notable journeys in recent years, has added to the maps eighty-one volcanoes, of which twenty-three are still active. The long, gentle slopes from the central mountains to the eastern coasts of Central America, continually drenched by the trade-wind rains, have a luxuriant and almost impenetrable vegetation and are still very little known. It is on the drier, Pacific side of these little states that development is mainly centred.

Most of the additions the nineteenth century has made to South American exploration have been the work of European and North American explorers, many of them poorly equipped and paying their own way. Their most conspicuous service has been the mapping of the drainage and explorations in the northern and central parts of the Cordilleras. The Spaniards long ago revealed the courses of the Amazon and La Plata-Paraguay, but they paid little attention to smaller streams and tributaries. It was left to this century, and particularly to the last three decades, to explore these rivers, and we now have an excellent idea of all the large features of the drainage system. European explorers have made Ecuador better known than Colombia simply because they have been attracted to the Ecuadorian Andes as a specially inviting field. Political or military influences have mainly incited exploration so far as the states have participated in it. Thus the important wars that Argentina waged in 1879–1880 with the Indians of the south, and in 1884–1885 with those of the north, had the incidental result of making large parts of Patagonia and the Gran Chaco fairly well known.

EXPLORATIONS IN SOUTH AMERICA

When Chile and Argentina based their boundary treaty of 1881 upon inaccurate geographical knowledge they sowed the seeds of an international quarrel. The result was that both began to survey the Cordilleran regions in dispute, and the resulting maps of the entire Andean territory between Cape Horn and 39° S. Lat. are specimens of excellent survey work, and have revealed a hitherto unknown region. Explorations in South America are of very uneven merit. Many are only crude route surveys. Argentina is, by far, the best-mapped state for its geological and meteorological departments, and the staff of foreign professors in the higher schools placed exploration and mapping, after 1882, on a high plane. The Brazilian government has never promoted scientific exploration, and all official work in that line has been done by a few states, mainly by Minas Geraes, São Paulo, and Pará. Most of the far interior, away from the rivers, is still unknown. The Amazon basin is one of the largest unexplored areas in the world; for, though steamers sail regularly on the main stream and many tribu-

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GREENLAND
ARCTIC CIRCLE
Icelandic Ridge
ICELAND
Arctic Basin
NORTH AMERICA
EUROPE
Azores Plateau
North American Basin
Puerto Rico Deep
North African Trough
EQUATOR
SOUTH AMERICA
Brazilian Basin
South African Trough
TROPIC OF CAPRICORN
Walfisch Ridge
MAIN RESULTS
OF THE
DEEP SEA EXPLORATIONS
IN THE
ATLANTIC OCEAN
0-3,300 ft.
3,300-10,000 ft.
10,000-13,000 ft.
13,000-16,400 ft.
16,400-19,700 ft.
Over 19,700 ft.

taries, the stretches between the rivers have not been visited. The inland parts of the Guianas and of the Cordilleran states from Venezuela to Bolivia are still in the crude and early stages of exploration.

What a contrast Africa presents! A hundred years ago the world had knowledge only of its coasts, Egypt, some of the Barbary Coast lands, bits of Senegambia, and the upper Niger, revealed by Mungo Park, and the Cape of Good Hope for one hundred and twenty miles inland. All the rest was a blank on the maps. The last inhabited area of importance that was wholly unknown a year ago, that between Lake Rudolf and the Nile, has just been crossed by the American explorer, Dr. Donaldson Smith. The least-known part of Africa is now the Sahara and Libyan deserts, which have been neglected, on the whole, though a great deal has been done to reveal their character. This neglect is due partly to the small economic importance of these regions, but mainly to the hostility of the natives.

PIONEER EXPLORING IN ASIA

Sixty-five years ago Mr. Hamilton said, in an address before the British Association: "We have only a general knowledge of the geographical character of the Burman, Chinese, and Japanese empires; the innumerable islands of the latter are still, except occasionally, inaccessible to European navigators. Geographers hardly venture on the most loose description of Tibet, Mongolia, or Chinese Tartary, Siam and Cochin China." Since that time a swarm of explorers have overrun nearly every portion of Asia. India is as well mapped as any part of Europe, and that great survey is now being extended over Burmah. Japan is mapping her own rugged islands by the most detailed and scientific methods. There are only two regions in that largest of all the continents where pioneer exploring may now be done. One of them is in central and southern Arabia, where there are still large areas, probably sandy desert, that are wholly unknown. The other is in Tibet, the highest of plateau regions, where there are large gaps to be visited between the lines of exploration run by many Russian, British, and French explorers and the American, Rockhill. Thus the era of running route surveys in Asia is closing with the end of the century, and the work of detailed exploration, completed in India, is rapidly extending.

Our knowledge of Australia, like that of Africa, is the gift of the nineteenth century. A number of explorers, of whom the best known was Dr. Leichardt, have perished in the waterless and repellent waste that covers the vast interior. But this sandy desert is now marked in all directions by the tracks of explorers; and one of the most practical features of their work was the discovery, around the desert margins, of wide areas of grazing lands that are making Australia one of the greatest of stock-raising countries. The interior of eastern New Guinea, the largest island except Greenland, has been opened to our knowledge within the past fifteen years by the British and Germans, who wished to ascertain the nature of their new possessions. The fact that the western half of the island is still almost unknown seems to show that its masters, the Dutch, have lost the zeal that placed their fathers among the hardiest and most enthusiastic explorers.

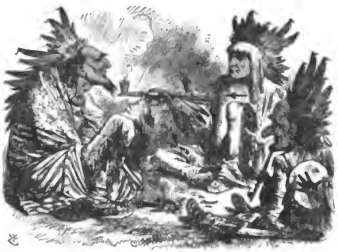
POLAR EXPLORATIONS

In Polar exploration, the nineteenth century has scarcely excelled the splendid achievements of earlier ages, though it has added many new islands to the maps, attained the farthest north, and, what is perhaps most important, has perfected the art of living and travelling, in comparative safety, in the high latitudes. It may be that the archipelago north of this continent will be considerably extended by later explorations, but there are good reasons for believing that the still unknown Arctic area contains no great land masses. The unknown part of the Antarctic regions is twice as large as Europe, and is now the largest unexplored area in the world. Expeditions, organized on a very important scale in England and Germany, will undertake, with the opening of the new century, to clear away at least a part of the mystery that shrouds this vast expanse. Every Arctic expert now believes that the attainment of the North Pole is only a question of time; and it is probable that the century now opening will fully complete the pioneer exploration of the entire world, which the closing century has so wonderfully advanced.

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GREAT EVENTS IN CARICATURE

THE political and social cartoon, as we know it to-day, had its birth fifty-odd years ago in the pages of London *Punch*, and the volumes of that journal could be successfully drawn upon for an accurate and compelling history, during the period which they cover, not only of the British Empire, but of the civilized world as well. Details might be lacking, but not the essential facts. Swift pictorial comment leaves the printed page lagging on behind, and one would rise from such a book with an impression of vivid reality that could be gained in no other way. An instance is the famous cartoon "The British Lion's Vengeance on the Bengal Tiger," which, published in 1857, gave concrete and telling expression to England's anger at the outrages of Delhi, Lucknow, and Cawnpore. Indignant but admiring crowds gathered about it when it was first displayed in the shop windows of London, and the name of the artist became over night a familiar one in every English household.



SMOKING THE CALUMET.
(*The Alabama Claims.*)

"A Vision on the Way" illustrates in striking fashion the blind folly which involved the head of the Third Empire in ruin. The shadow of the greater appears to the lesser



THE BRITISH LION'S VENGEANCE ON THE BENGAL TIGER.
(*After Cawnpore.*)

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A VISION ON THE WAY.
(At the time of the Third Empire.)

Bonaparte and his son, and warns them to stay the march to the German frontiers. The young prince imperial seems conscious of the spectre's presence, but the father rides on unheeding to his doom. The small cartoon entitled "Smoking the Calumet," which depicts Gladstone and Brother Jonathan counselling in Indian fashion, with Mr. Punch an amused and interested auditor, offers witty and incisive comment upon the deliberation of the Alabama Claims Commission.



PARADISE AND THE PERI
(Disraeli's first accession to premiership)

Disraeli's strange, dark *vis-a-vis* was a rich source of inspiration to the caricaturists of his day, and the whole range of pictorial satire boasts no happier effort than the drawing "Paradise and the Peri," which, suggested by a familiar passage in "Lalla Rookh," celebrates the great Hebrew's first accession to the British premiership. No less humorous and effective is the cartoon "Mosé in Egitto," called forth in 1875 by England's newly acquired control of the Suez Canal. This drawing brings to mind an interesting bit of unpublished history; for, though the purchase of the Khedive's shares in the Suez Canal has always been credited to Disraeli, it was really the work of an English journalist, Frederick Greenwood. Dining out one evening in October, 1875, Mr.

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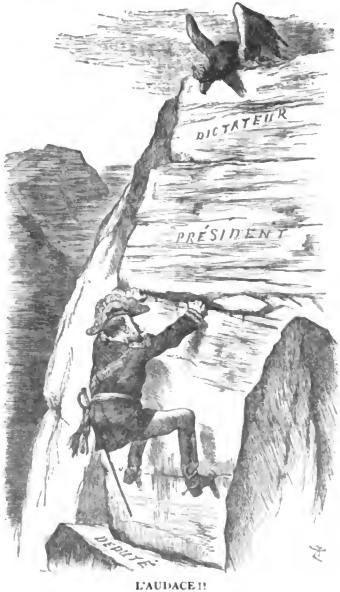


MOSÉ IN EGITTO.
(*The Suez Canal.*)

Greenwood, who was the editor of the *Pall Mall Gazette*, met a *confrère* employed on the staff of a well-known Paris journal. This gentleman, in the course of the evening, boasted that before the week's end France would hold a controlling share in the stock of the Suez Canal. The impecunious Khedive, the Frenchman explained, having hinted to a Paris friend a readiness to dispose of his shares in the canal, a syndicate of French financiers had subscribed the purchase money, and the negotiations would be completed on the exchange of certain formal documents.

Mr. Greenwood went home and slept on this astounding information. Early next morning he sought an interview with Lord Derby, the Foreign Secretary, and informed him of the business in hand. "What can we do?" asked Lord Derby, startled from his usual placidity by the startling news brought by his visitor. Mr. Greenwood was ready with his answer. "Step in," said he, "and buy the shares on account of England. You can outbid the Frenchman, and the Khedive will prefer you as a customer." However, it was an essential part of the bargain that the money, some four millions sterling, should be paid cash down, and Lord Derby was not in a position to pledge British credit to the amount. Mr. Greenwood proved equal to this fresh difficulty. He hurried to Lombard Street, had an interview with the Rothschilds, and brought back the draft of an agreement upon which they undertook, for a consideration, to finance the colossal transaction. Disraeli's approval was, of course, necessary, but his share in the great *coup* was confined to giving his consent.

The cartoon "L'Audace" recalls one of the most curious chapters in the history of modern France. The short-lived pretender, Boulanger, is shown climbing a rocky ascent which shall lead him to the presidency and a dictatorship. Utter failure attended the efforts of this pinchbeck Napoleon, and suicide ended a career that lacked only the



L'AUDACE!!
(*The Boulanger Fiasco.*)

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element of greatness to have been truly tragic.

Subject and treatment considered, there has been no nobler or more impressive drawing of its kind than "Dropping the Pilot," which, prompted by Bismarck's retirement from the German chancellorship, appeared in *Punch* in March, 1890. The stout old pilot, gray from weighty service, goes down the side of the German ship for the last time, followed by the pensive gaze of the young Emperor, uncertain as to the wisdom of parting with such a tried and faithful servant. Genuine dramatic feeling is also present in the "Unarming," of four years later, the last of a remarkable series dealing with a remarkable man, in which the time-worn warrior, Gladstone, doffs his armor and hangs upon the wall the double-edged sword of leadership.

All of the drawings here reproduced are from the pencil of Sir John Tenniel, who at Christmastide completed fifty years of brilliant service on the staff of London *Punch*. During the major part of the period named the paper has been without him only on some half-dozen occasions, and on these



DROPPING THE PILOT.
(*Bismarck's Retirement*)



UNARMING.
(*Gladstone's Retirement.*)

occasions only has another hand than his drawn for the central page devoted to the cartoon. The greatest caricaturist of his generation, — a premier place which his most gifted rivals are glad to accord him, — he has seldom been unjust or unfair in his work, nor has he ever employed his art in any narrow or partisan cause. From the first the secret of the power of his incomparable cartoons has been their simplicity and their inherent truthfulness, and the legitimate use to which he has always put his pencil has made it for upward of a generation a force taken into account by sagacious statesmen in every forecast of the drift of public opinion. One hates to think of the not distant day, for he is now a very old man, when his familiar signature will appear for the last time in *Punch*.

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A SHORT GUIDE TO NEW BOOKS

Life and Letters of Thomas Henry Huxley.

MR. LEONARD HUXLEY, a son of the great biologist and essayist, has so arranged his father's diaries and letters and other records of his life and work that these volumes have almost the effect of an autobiography; and he has done the work modestly, in good taste, and in good proportion. The aim is to present the man rather than the scientific results of his work. If sweeping generalizations were not treacherous, a reviewer who holds in grateful remembrance the biographies and letters of Tennyson and Jowett would say that these really autobiographical volumes about Huxley are the richest that have been added to biography for many a year. The charm and the energy, the nobility and the frankness, of the man shine out on every page. The company that he kept had in their nurture and keeping the revolutionary and dominant thought of the half-century. This is the fact that makes these volumes as important to men who think, as the personality of the man makes them interesting. Few such books come in any one lifetime of readers. (Appleton. 2 vols., $5.00.)

A Literary History of America.

PROFESSOR BARRETT WENDELL of Harvard University, with very much less academic ponderosity than such books usually show, has written a literary history of the United States that has better proportion than any similar book on the subject, or on a part of the subject. His aim is to show wherein American literary work has diverged from English work and thought; and this aim gives the book a distinct reason for existence apart from its service as a book of instruction. Endless as the controversies are, that perhaps any book on the subject will provoke, Mr. Wendell's volume of 574 pages is the best single book on American literature; it is large enough to enable him to say what he wishes to say in good form and proportion. It is not a manual, nor a series of essays, but a book with a backbone. (Scribner. $3.00.)

The Peace Conference at The Hague.

MR. FREDERICK W. HOLLS, a member from the United States of the Peace Conference at The Hague, has done a notable service in putting forth this record (which is much more than a record, for it is an instructive interpretation as well) of the Peace Conference of 1899, about which no complete and satisfactory information has till now been accessible to the layman. The chapter headings give his method of treatment: The Calling of the Conference, Its Opening, The Work of the Several Committees, — in sufficient detail to explain the vast fund of military, historical, and political information that was at the service of the Conference, — The Immunity of Private Property at Sea, The Conference from Day to Day, and The Bearings of the Conference upon International Law and Policy. Appendices contain the text of the Final Act, the Treaties and Declarations of the Conference, and the Reports of the American Commission. Mr. Holls has made his explanation with a fulness of historical and legal knowledge. The book is dedicated to the Czar. (Macmillan. $3.00.)

The Problem of Asia.

CAPTAIN A. T. MAHAN considers the problem of Asia and its effect upon international policies from a historical point of view in a study, the greater part of which was made before the recent outbreak in China. The larger historical, geographical, and military facts are presented and their tendencies are interpreted. A chapter, written later, takes up the effect of European conditions on world policies; and the volume includes also an essay on the merits of the Transvaal dispute. Captain Mahan believes in the necessity of an aggressive civilization, and he writes with a large vision. (Little, Brown. $2.00.)

Napoleon, the Last Phase.

LORD ROSEBERY'S interesting volume is noteworthy because he reviews the life of Napoleon at St. Helena and reaches the conclusion (not new, but not commonly held by Englishmen) that his treatment was shameful. The Governor of St. Helena, Sir Hudson Lowe, was an offending official, but the British Government itself also was blameworthy. Incidentally Sir Walter Scott's "Napoleon" receives sharp criticism. (Harper. $3.00.)

Italian Cities.

MR. EDWIN HOWLAND BLASHFIELD and MRS. EVANGELINE WILBOUR BLASHFIELD have made two volumes that deserve a permanent success, in these chapters on Italian art and the life of the Renaissance, for they are sympathetic, interpretative, full of color. Small cities in northern and central Italy give the title and take up a large part of the work; but three chapters are given to Florentine subjects, and one to Raphael in Rome. Both illustrations and text are worthily done. (Scribner. 2 vols., $4.00.)

MR. ISRAEL ZANGWILL does not, as in his former novels, deal with the Hebraic character, but with

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the family of an English statesman who is bitterly opposed to British expansion by war. The book turns on the right of every human being to the highest spiritual development, whatever the obstacle, — the obstacle being, in this case, an unworthy husband. Zangwill marries a "B.C. man to an A.D. woman." The tragedy that follows makes a strong story. (Harper. $1.50.)

The Mantle of Elijah.

Mr. James G. Cannon, a banker of long experience, tells the history and explains the methods and administration of clearing houses, especially American ones, in a clear style and by a good method. The book is an authoritative one. (Appleton. $2.00.)

Clearing Houses.

Dr. Henry Smith Williams's volume is made up of his articles from *Harper's* — a survey for the general reader of progress in the various branches of natural science, not technical, and generally well proportioned; as fair a summary as one man perhaps could make. The illustrations are poor, the index inadequate. (Harper. $2.50.)

The Story of Nineteenth Century Science.

Professor J. P. Gordy has made a revision and expansion of an earlier work, to be completed in four volumes, covering the period from the formation of the Federalist party to the present. A book of first-hand research, useful for reference, dry in manner. (Holt. $1.50.)

A History of Political Parties in the United States.

Mr. Charles G. D. Roberts's romance of the northern woods is almost a fairy story, so important is the part played by the wild things of the forest. A woman and her child go into exile, and the child grows up and falls in love with a woodman, whose life she saves from one of her own wild creatures. It is a sylvan story written with a sensitive appreciation of nature, and written very well. (Silver, Burdett. $1.50.)

The Heart of the Ancient Wood.

Miss Jeannette L. Gilder has made a clever record, or story, or series of sketches (it is all these), of energetic tomboyhood in the country, refreshingly free from sentimentality, straightforward and hearty, for young readers of whatever age. Illustrated by Florence Scovel Shinn. (Doubleday, Page. $1.25.)

The Autobiography of a Tomboy.

Miss Molly Elliot Seawell's romance is of a gallant English gentleman in the days of William of Orange, and is told with sprightliness. Many of the scenes are in France, where the partisans of the Stuart line plot for its restoration. A martial atmosphere surrounds the story, but it ends peacefully, with a happy wedding. (Scribner. $1.25.)

The House of Egremont.

Mr. Rufus Rockwell Wilson has, in the tone of a leisurely rambler, told much interesting colonial history and many anecdotes and incidents of notable persons (without the responsibility of the formal historian) in his description of historic places from Gardiner's Island and up the Hudson all the way through Pennsylvania and Virginia down to Yorktown. These are very pleasantly written and attractively made, illustrated volumes, none the less valuable and all the more interesting because they are "a record of rambles in nooks and byways." (Lippincott. 2 vols., $3.00.)

Rambles in Colonial Byways.

Mr. Maurice Hewlett's new novel, which has Richard the Lion-hearted as its hero, is written in his rich and nervous style which gives it distinction, and the story has swing and action. He is one of the half-dozen writers of fiction whose style is a joy. (Macmillan. $1.50.)

The Life and Death of Richard Yea-and-Nay.

Mr. Frank R. Stockton's whimsical story is of a susceptible young schoolmaster, who spends a summer a-wheel and has a series of odd adventures, each centring about a different young lady; as good a story as he has written since "The Squirrel Inn." (Harper. $1.50.)

A Bicycle of Cathay.

Miss Helen Evertson Smith has skilfully and modestly made a book of real historical value. The accumulated records of nine generations of ancestors were open to the investigator, who has reconstructed the past from them. It is entertaining and of first-hand importance. (Century. $2.50.)

Colonial Days and Ways.

Mr. Henry Clews writes with entertainment and shrewdness and in a practical way about Wall Street and its world and worldly wisdom; he writes superficially about social problems, and as a partisan about public affairs — an interesting medley of good horse-sense and some ramshackle philosophy. (Silver, Burdett. $1.50.)

The Wall Street Point of View.

Mr. Walter G. Bronson's brief handbook, with a bibliography, a reference list, etc., is more than a text-book, for its discussion of general influences and its intelligent criticism give a wider interest. No other manual of American literature says so much so well in so little space. (Heath. $1.25.)

A Short History of American Literature.

Mrs. Alice Morse Earle's entertaining description and compilation of the colonial life that centred about travel and tavern is full of first-hand information and of out-of-the-way entertainment. The many pictures are a necessary part of the book. (Macmillan. $2.50.)

Stage-coach and Tavern Days.

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Lucid Intervals. MR. E. S. MARTIN, the short essayist of *Harper's Weekly* and of *Life*, has brought together a collection of his graceful, well-written pieces of humor, and good humor, about all sorts of things. (Harper. $1.50.)

The Great Boer War. DR. A. CONAN DOYLE'S narrative is a very clear, full, and interesting story of the war, including several chapters on causes and previous events. He was in South Africa as an army surgeon, and gathered his information on the spot. (McClure, Phillips. $1.50.)

The Archbishop and the Lady. MRS. SCHUYLER CROWNINSHIELD hospitably brings together in this cosmopolitan novel French, Americans, English, and a stray Russian or two; and the scenes are in England, in Paris, and partly in a ruined French Abbey. There is a mediæval twilight about the characters, but the situations are wholly modern. (McClure, Phillips. $1.50.)

Black Rock. MR. RALPH CONNOR'S story of purpose deals with lumber and mining camp life, and with the work for its reform which was done by a young preacher and a miner's widow. A healthy, clear-cut piece of purpose fiction. (Revell. $1.50.)

Crittenden. MR. JOHN FOX, JR.'S, story is of the Spanish War, and its scenes shift from the Bluegrass region to the seat of conflict and back again, and centres about a strong young Kentuckian whose spirit is chastened by war and love. It is a spirited book. (Scribner. $1.25.)

L'Aiglon. M. EDMOND ROSTAND'S latest play, "L'Aiglon," which Bernhardt has been playing in French and Miss Maude Adams in English, has been "adapted into English" by Mr. Louis N. Parker; and the American publisher has made a beautiful book of it. This is the authorized, copyright version. (Russell. $1.50.)

NEW TENDENCIES IN PUBLISHING

BY

A PUBLISHER

MY own convictions are that we are just entering upon an era of possibilities in book publishing quite revolutionary in character. The sociological conditions are absolutely new and altogether remarkable. The country is passing into a new stage; prosperity has brought wealth to hundreds of thousands, or even millions, who, relieved from the press of material affairs, will turn to reading; and these same conditions are developing new authors and new interests in literature. The United States is already the greatest book market in the world, but it is still miserably small compared with what it should be, and inevitably will be. I am hopeful of the new conditions, and I see much good even in the present difficulties which are weighing down the conservative publisher.

The crushing out of the old-time bookseller, if he has been really crushed, I am sorry for; but the old type of bookseller has gone for good, and all the publishers in the world cannot re-create him. To be quite frank, the so-called old-time bookseller was not the easiest business man in the world to get on with; he was a trying customer at times, because he regarded himself, I suppose, as an especially privileged person. But as conditions changed, the tradition wore off, and a substitute will some day fill his place. It is the stage of transition which is hard for all to bear. The new publisher will probably be brighter than we are, but the competition will be harder, as it is in England. We have in the United States no equivalent to the conditions which exist there, where the profits are calculated upon a low percentage on invested capital.

We have as yet taken no thought of foreign bookselling, for some reason, but we must soon do so. We sell to the English houses editions of American books, which they in turn sell to the colonies. It certainly will not be many years before we are seeking and finding foreign markets of our own, just as other American manufacturers are doing.

It is a fine thing to be able to say also that our readers have no narrow prejudices about an author's nationality. If the book is good, the author may be a Pole, a German, an Englishman, or an American — the nationality of the author makes absolutely no difference in popularity, and the spelling may even be American or English. In England this is distinctly not true — it is hard to sell an American book there, as it has been for years, because of the prejudice against anything not English.

Another good sign is the change in the sort of books sold by subscription. Even the book agent has become a different sort of visitor from the old bore of a pedler, for he now sells many of the best works of reference and sets of standard and modern authors at a fair price, instead of the gaudy centre-table book of a few years ago at ten prices.

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FICTION IN PUBLIC LIBRARIES

BY

THE LIBRARIAN OF A PUBLIC LIBRARY

IN my opinion, a library supported by the public funds has no more right than a theatre or a circus to a share of the public money if it aims only to amuse the people, or to cater continually to the lowest mental appetites. The public library is a people's university, founded not to entertain the people for amusement's sake, but to carry on a great general education of the masses after the public school has but fairly begun it. Recreation plays an exceedingly important part in the great scheme, it is true. Certain books of questionable value may be admissible only when there is a class of neglected, uneducated people to be attracted who could not be drawn to the library with any other bait. And so I consider it necessary to purchase fiction of both the first and the second grade for the purpose of getting all those people into the habit of reading who would never read at all if they could not get a novel on their own plane. In raw, new, manufacturing districts, for instance, it would not be surprising if three-fourths of all the books circulated for a year or two were fiction. But what are we to think when a good old New England town like Salem confesses to a circulation of 83 per cent of fiction in its library? Then there is a Connecticut city, famed for its university, which circulates 20 juveniles and 51 novels out of every hundred books, while a Wisconsin city, famed for its beer, gives the lowest percentage of froth in literary form.

The library is not fulfilling its mission, I believe, where more than 60 per cent of fiction, including juveniles, is circulated. Forty books, including works of reference, history, biography, travel, religion, science, literature, art, and the many other divisions of a well-stocked library, are surely not too many to be circulated out of every hundred from "the people's university." The abnormal circulation of fiction in many libraries demands far more serious consideration than it is receiving. Large sums of public money, and what is vastly worse, an immense amount of time and effort, are expended on books that produce useless, if not pernicious, results. Undoubtedly too much that is trashy and ephemeral is offered to the public.

Here is a list of libraries taken at random that shows the percentage of circulation in 1899 of fiction and juveniles: —

TABLE SHOWING PERCENTAGE OF FICTION AND JUVENILES OF ALL BOOKS CIRCULATED

State	Town or City	Fiction	Juvenile Literature	Fiction and Juvenile
California	San Francisco	41	14	
Connecticut	New Haven	51	20	
Illinois	Chicago	43	27	
	Evanston	38	21	
Maine	Portland	54	20	
Maryland	Enoch Pratt Free Library, Baltimore			68
Massachusetts	Brockton	52	19	
	Brookline	67		
	Cambridge			71
	Salem	83		
Michigan	Detroit	51	23	
	Grand Rapids	41	25	
Minnesota	Minneapolis	50	21	
Missouri	St. Louis	55	25	
	St. Joseph	78		
New Jersey (1897)	Jersey City	52	26	
	Newark	61	19	
New York	Brooklyn	36	29	
	Buffalo	67		
	Jamestown	55	21	
	New York Mercantile Library	55		
	Syracuse	81		
Ohio	Cincinnati	79		
	Cleveland	40	18	
	Springfield	57	18	
Pennsylvania	Pittsburg Carnegie Library	70		
	Scranton	73		
Wisconsin	Milwaukee	33	17	

In some cases the law, and always the library's administrators, are responsible for bad results. Where the income from public funds is meted out in proportion to the number of volumes circulated (10 cents a book is the maximum in New York State) and its income does not necessarily depend upon the quality of work done, you see the tremendous temptation to fill the shelves with fiction that circulates rapidly enough to make a show of big figures in the annual report.

If people of cultivation used libraries more, instead of holding aloof, as too many do, in the belief that the public library is intended solely for "the great unwashed," the whole tone of the literature offered would be greatly improved. The supply of fresh, attractive, popular books in classes other than

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fiction slowly creates a demand for them, as surely as the converse is an axiom.

Now, shall the administrators of a library be altogether guided by public taste, or shall the public taste be first met, then directed higher and higher toward the ideal? In my opinion his duty is clear. The public libraries in this country are doing such a marvellously great work for the uplifting of humanity that I cannot help feeling guilty of a pessimism that I do not believe in so long as I write about a single evil tendency; for I think that the gradual growth of intellectual well-being will correct it.

THE MONTH'S MOST POPULAR BOOKS

LISTS of the most popular books of the past month have been received from book-dealers in Boston, Philadelphia, New York, Louisville, St. Paul, Detroit, San Francisco, Los Angeles, Cleveland, and Pittsburg; and from librarians in Springfield, Detroit, Chicago, Hartford, Minneapolis, Buffalo, Cincinnati, Brooklyn, New York, Atlanta, Cleveland, and Jersey City. Composite lists made from these two sets of reports follow.

BOOK-DEALERS' REPORTS

1. Eben Holden — Bacheller. (Lothrop.)
2. Tommy and Grizel — Barrie. (Scribner.)
3. Eleanor — Ward. (Harper.)
4. Master Christian — Corelli. (Dodd, Mead.)
5. Alice of Old Vincennes — Thompson. (Bowen-Merrill.)
6. In the Palace of the King — Crawford. (Macmillan.)
7. The Redemption of David Corson — Goss. (Bowen-Merrill.)
8. The Voice of the People — Glasgow. (Doubleday, Page.)
9. The Cardinal's Snuff Box — Harland. (Lane.)
10. The Reign of Law — Allen. (Macmillan.)
11. The Isle of Unrest — Merriman. (Dodd, Mead.)
12. Unleavened Bread — Grant. (Scribner.)
13. The Life and Death of Richard Yea-and-Nay — Hewlett. (Macmillan.)
14. Elizabeth and her German Garden — Anon. (Macmillan.)
15. Monsieur Beaucaire — Tarkington. (McClure, Phillips.)
16. Stringtown on the Pike — Lloyd. (Dodd, Mead.)
17. Philip Winwood — Stephens. (L. C. Page.)
18. The Lane that had No Turning — Parker. (Doubleday, Page.)
19. The Life of Francis Parkman — Farnham. (Houghton, Mifflin.)
20. The Gentleman from Indiana — Tarkington. (Doubleday, Page.)
21. The Solitary Summer — Anon. (Macmillan.)
22. To Have and to Hold — Johnston. (Houghton, Mifflin.)
23. Wild Animals I Have Known — Seton-Thompson. (Scribner.)
24. Bob, Son of Battle — Ollivant. (Doubleday, Page.)
25. Boy — Corelli. (Lippincott.)
26. More Fables in Slang — Ade. (Stone.)
27. Wanted, a Matchmaker — Ford. (Dodd, Mead.)
28. Along French Byways — Johnson. (Macmillan.)
29. The Hosts of the Lord — Steel. (Macmillan.)
30. Napoleon — Rosebery. (Harper.)

LIBRARIANS' REPORTS

1. The Reign of Law — Allen. (Macmillan.)
2. The Redemption of David Corson — Goss. (Bowen-Merrill.)
3. Unleavened Bread — Grant. (Scribner.)
4. Tommy and Grizel — Barrie. (Scribner.)
5. Eben Holden — Bacheller. (Lothrop.)
6. Master Christian — Corelli. (Dodd, Mead.)
7. To Have and to Hold — Johnston. (Houghton, Mifflin.)
8. The Gentleman from Indiana — Tarkington. (Doubleday, Page.)
9. Elizabeth and her German Garden — Anon. (Macmillan.)
10. Janice Meredith — Ford. (Dodd, Mead.)
11. The Cardinal's Snuff Box — Harland. (Lane.)
12. Eleanor — Ward. (Harper.)
13. Wild Animals I Have Known — Seton-Thompson. (Scribner.)
14. Philip Winwood — Stephens. (L. C. Page.)
15. The Maid of Maiden Lane — Barr. (Dodd, Mead.)
16. Quisanté — Hawkins. (Stokes.)
17. Alice of Old Vincennes — Thompson. (Bowen-Merrill.)
18. When Knighthood was in Flower — Major. (Bowen-Merrill.)
19. Red Pottage — Cholmondeley. (Harper.)
20. David Harum — Westcott. (Appleton.)
21. The Voice of the People — Glasgow. (Doubleday, Page.)
22. China, the Long-lived Empire — Seidmore. (Century.)
23. Sky Pilot — Connor. (Revell.)
24. Richard Carvel — Churchill. (Macmillan.)
25. The Letters of R. L. Stevenson — Colvin. (Scribner.)
26. Meloon Farm — Pool. (Harper.)
27. Black Rock — Connor. (Revell.)
28. Fisherman's Luck — Van Dyke. (Scribner.)
29. Stringtown on the Pike — Lloyd. (Dodd, Mead.)
30. The Pride of Jennico — Castle. (Macmillan.)

Sixteen books are mentioned in both lists. Eight books, "The Reign of Law," "The Redemption of David Corson," "Unleavened Bread," "Tommy and Grizel," "Eben Holden," "Master Christian," "The Cardinal's Snuff Box," and "Eleanor," are among the first twelve in each list, and are, therefore, probably the most read books of the month. There are only seven books, not fiction, in the book-dealers' list, and only five in the librarians' list.

"Eben Holden" stands higher on the book-dealers' list than last month. "The Cardinal's Snuff Box," "The Reign of Law," "Unleavened Bread," "Monsieur Beaucaire," "The Gentleman from Indiana," "Elizabeth and her German Garden," and "Wild Animals I Have Known," lower, while "The Redemption of David Corson," "The Voice of the People," and "Bob, Son of Battle" retain their relative positions. "The Reign of Law" remains at the head of the books called for at the libraries. "Eben Holden," "Master Christian," "Sky Pilot," and "The Redemption of David Corson" are higher, and "To Have and to Hold," "Elizabeth and her German Garden," "Janice Meredith," "When Knighthood was in Flower," "Red Pottage," "David Harum," "Richard Carvel," "Fisherman's Luck," and Seidmore's "China," lower than a month ago. "Unleavened Bread," "Philip Winwood," and "The Voice of the People" have practically the same relative popularity.

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AMONG THE WORLD'S WORKERS

INDUSTRIAL FACTS THAT SHOW A GROWING PRIDE IN AMERICAN ACHIEVEMENT — THE MEANING OF THE YEAR'S FOREIGN TRADE — NEW ROUTES OF TRANSPORTATION — THE OUTLOOK IN THE FAR EAST

THE prodigious industrial activity of the closing year, and the great strides made by the United States, will form, whenever our industrial history is written, one of the most interesting chapters in national development. During the year it became apparent to the whole industrial world that the United States is not merely a granary, but that it is fast becoming the foremost workshop as well.

This new national industrial impulse is becoming general — is, in fact, a form of patriotism. It is an impulse that will lead to a greater enrichment than we have yet dreamed of, to a greater pride in our country, to a firmer faith in democratic institutions — a new national life in fact.

The evidences of such an impulse are so numerous that the selection of a few typical facts is difficult, when the whole industrial horizon is so full of facts.

The Meaning of the Year's Foreign Trade

AN immense amount of constructive and reconstructive work must be undertaken as a sequel of the war in South Africa, which made havoc with railroads and rolling stock, and with bridges and mining machinery. America's iron and steel industries promise to play a large part in this second invasion of South Africa. The Baldwin and Schenectady locomotive works have in hand important orders from the Cape Government; the American Bridge Company is reported to have made a bid on bridges involving eight thousand tons of material, and the export departments of American houses handling machinery and railroad supplies have large orders in sight, for South Africa; and some shipments have already been made.

It is in raw cotton, however, and manufactured iron and steel, that the greatest growth is shown. Exports of cotton in the month of October amounted to over sixty millions, as compared with twenty-eight millions in the same month of the previous year, while exports of manufactures of iron and steel during 1900 exceeded one hundred and thirty-two millions. Thus the exportation of manufactures has increased nearly twenty-five per cent in a single twelvemonth, and more than doubled in the four years from 1896 to 1900, while the importation of manufacturers' materials has also increased at a rapid rate. Moreover, this increase in the products of industry shows in many cases a higher reward for a given quantity of labor, as well as an increase in the quantity produced and sold. To cite a typical instance, the average export price of cotton a pound in the months of September and October, the beginning of the new cotton year, was nine and nine-tenths cents, against six and seven-tenths cents in the same months of the preceding year; while in other agricultural productions and in various lines of manufactures, especially those of iron and steel, and in the products of our mines, there are increased prices per unit of quantity, and thus better earnings for those who produce them.

Nor do these facts tell the whole story of American prosperity. The United Kingdom and Germany, our most formidable rivals, along with Belgium, France, Spain, and Italy, during 1900 imported more than they exported; but American exports during the same period vastly exceeded the imports, the excess being in round numbers six hundred millions, or a greater excess than in the corresponding period of any preceding year, and a greater excess than that of any other country in the world.

American Coal in Foreign Markets

AMERICAN coal, like American steel, now supplies the markets of the world, and in all the world, no country stands ahead of the United States as a coal-producer. Within the past year or two we have outstripped our aforetime rival — Great Britain — and are credited with 253,000,000 net tons, as against 246,000,000 tons for the older country, while Germany has 149,000,000 tons to its credit; the remainder of the world producing but 149,000,000 tons.

The resources of the United States as against those of other countries are seen, when one knows that our country has workable coal seams extending over 192,000 square miles, as compared with 12,000 for Great Britain, 2000 for France, 1800 for Germany, 3500 for Spain, and 30,000 reported for

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Russia. In the Appalachian field, which embraces Maryland, West Virginia, Ohio, Eastern Kentucky, Tennessee, and Alabama, there are 58,265 square miles of coal, or nearly five times as great an area as that possessed by Great Britain, and these states during the past year turned out 130,000,000 of tons.

The price of coal on the Atlantic coast, of as good quality as the best Welsh coal, is only $2.50 per ton, or half that of the Welsh coal. Our chief markets are likely to be found in France, Germany, and Italy, countries which have been large consumers of the coal of Britain, while it was cheap. France annually consumes 42,000,000 tons of coal, while she produces only 32,000,000 tons. The deficit has been made good in former years by other countries, principally Great Britain, and to some extent by Germany and Belgium. All three of these countries, however, now require more than their own output.

Germany's total consumption of coal and lignite for the current year is computed at about 140,000,000 tons — an amount five times as great as it was thirty years ago.

The requirements of the two cities of Hamburg and Berlin, both wholly dependent upon purchases in the open market, amount to more than 6,500,000 tons per annum. Both cities are easily accessible by water to American coal, — Hamburg with its open port and ample coal docks; Berlin with a river freight of only 75 cents per ton in addition to the ocean rate.

It is bituminous or soft coal that is chiefly to go abroad. Little anthracite coal is used in Europe. The only real anthracite purchased abroad is about 2,000,000 tons yearly in Wales. It is burned in the northern part of France, in Belgium, Holland, and Northern Germany. Our bituminous coal, however, commands a steadily growing market. Buyers who have taken it are ready to give further orders.

It is true that much of the American coal is of softer grade than the firm Welsh coals, but that has not worked any disadvantage in this country. When the shipper learns that his soft coal breaks up on its way across the sea, or in transit to the ports of shipment, he will take precautions either to send the solidest coal that he can furnish, or arrangements will be made to handle the shipments with more care in loading and unloading, that it may arrive at its destination in the condition desired by purchasers. Delivering the goods is not a matter of great importance. Finding the market and making the quality and price right are the main things, and they have been accomplished. The amount of American coal exported in 1901 will be twenty times what it was in the year just closed.

New Records in Shipbuilding

THE year just closed was the most prosperous American shipping has known in a generation. Our shipowners, it would appear, are not waiting the passage of a subsidy bill by Congress before placing orders for new craft, and that the shipyards of the country are in a generally flourishing condition is indicated by the fact that during the past eighteen months there has been but one failure among firms operating plants of any magnitude. The contracts now in hand also give proof of increasing prosperity. The Huntingdon yards at Newport News have in course of construction a tonnage of 102,680, nearly half of which is for the merchant marine. The construction at the Cramp yard in Philadelphia amounts to 89,865, three-fourths of which is for the merchant service. This showing breaks the tonnage record hitherto held by the Harland & Wolff Company, of Belfast, which, in 1897, built 84,204 tons of shipping. Thus, the United States have two shipyards which are now making world records in the extent of output.

Many of the American plants are working overtime, and, though the shipbuilding capacity of the country has doubled in a year and a half, the Pacific coast yards have had to send orders to the Atlantic. Atlantic coast yards, in turn, have had to send some of their orders to the Lakes, and a few weeks ago the *Georgetown*, the first steamer ever built there exclusively for ocean service, was launched from the yards of the Union Dry Dock Company in Buffalo. This boat was built for the Atlantic Coast Steamship Company, and will ply between Boston, New York, and Southern ports.

Another noteworthy order is that recently placed by the Atlantic Transport Company with the Sparrows Point yard for the two largest passenger and freight steamers ever constructed in the United States. These vessels, built entirely of steel and supplied with modern appliances for loading and unloading, will cost a million and a half each, and will be delivered early in the summer. A second order lately secured by the same concern calls for two immense freight steamers, each of which will carry 12,000 tons, dead weight. These cargo carriers will cost $700,000 each, and their construction will begin this winter. Work now on hand at Sparrows Point will give full employment for two years to come to upwards of four thousand men.

Experiments now making may effect radical changes in inland shipbuilding, for the present season is to witness the first systematic attempt to use lake vessels for ocean carrying when they would otherwise be idle. This plan is not entirely new, but it has never been tested on an extensive scale.

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Now, however, Chicago, Wyandotte, Lorain, and other ports are building boats designed for both lake and ocean service, of as deep draught as can pass the Welland Canal, and twenty-eight vessels are afloat, or contracted for, that can ply either between Lake Erie and Montreal, or between Lake Erie and European ports.

About a dozen of these boats have been, or will be, sent from the Lakes to the sea this winter, and others will follow as rapidly as they can be built — this on the theory that it will pay better to restrict the size of lake vessels to the dimensions which the passage of the Welland Canal imposes, and have them active all the year round, than to follow the principle of giving them the maximum carrying capacity admitted by lake navigation, and tie them up during the winter months. Arrangements are practically completed also, it is said, for the building of a number of steamers and barges to carry grain from Chicago and Duluth to the elevator under construction at Montreal. These, however, will be constructed in England.

Whalebacks on the Mississippi

ANOTHER and equally important departure in navigation has been made on the Mississippi. Three steel whalebacks, the steamboat *McDougall*, and two barges were recently launched at St. Louis, and have met the expectations of their projectors, that they could carry freight more quickly than the other craft on the Mississippi, and so much more cheaply that they can recover for the river much of the traffic which has been diverted to the railroads.

It was doubtful whether whaleback boats could pass safely through the tortuous and shifting currents of the Mississippi, but these boats went from St. Louis to New Orleans in about nine days, and this although the boats tied up every night and stopped several hours at Memphis. Their novel appearance attracted almost as much attention along the trip as did Nicholas J. Roosevelt's *New Orleans*, the pioneer steamboat on western waters, when it sailed down the Ohio and lower Mississippi in 1811, or Fulton's *Clermont* on the Hudson in 1807.

The *McDougall* has eleven feet depth of hold, and the barges each fourteen, with a carrying capacity of 3000 tons; yet they draw only sixteen inches of water. All were designed by Captain Alexander McDougall, the inventor of the "whaleback." These boats will shorten the trip by several days, and have proved so satisfactory that new steamboats and barges of this type are likely to be put on the river early in 1901.

It is as part of the general extension of the traffic on our inland waters that this new departure has importance for the whole country. A movement is on foot, pushed by Chicago as well as the principal towns on the Mississippi, for the deepening of the river from the mouth of the Illinois or from St. Louis downward. This project will be hopefully brought before Congress this winter. When the Mississippi is deepened a few feet, whalebacks may leave St. Louis, and ultimately Chicago, if the new drainage canal and the Illinois are also deepened, as is now planned, for Europe, South America, and even (some day) for Asia, by way of the Nicaragua Canal.

Future Railway Tendencies

JAMES J. HILL, builder and president of the Great Northern Railway, speaks with authority on all questions dealing with the construction and management of railroads. The growth in twenty-one years of the system of which he is the head, from 380 to 4500 miles, gives proof, if that were needed, of his executive ability and of his good judgment. Speaking not long since of the railway situation and our growing trade with the far East, Mr. Hill said for publication in the WORLD'S WORK:

"The forces likely to determine in future the construction of new lines of railway in the United States are the need for better terminal facilities, and the special requirements of particular sections. That the building of great trunk lines has come to an end is shown, I think, by the fact that during the past dozen years there has been a steady decline in railway construction in all parts of the United States. A railway that will not yield a prospective profit to its projectors has no legitimate reason for existence, and, as the existing lines between the West and the East are prepared to transport twice or thrice the tonnage now offering, or likely to offer for many years to come, to attempt to parallel them with new ones would be a financial blunder little better than a crime. The competition of older rivals and the consequent division of business would render the stocks and bonds of the newcomers practically worthless, and investors have learned caution from the disasters of the past. Lines now in operation are pretty sure to seek and secure improved outlets, and there is bound to be a small but steady increase in mileage having for its object the development of some particular interest or section; but more than that should not be looked for in the near future. Indeed, in most of the states of the East and Middle West, the existing mileage supplies all the facilities wanted. In such states no considerable amount of new mileage can be built with the assurance of profit, and this fact will exert a salutary influence in checking doubtful ventures and compelling obedience to the very excellent rule that where a line is capable of handling the trans-

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portation of its section, the construction of a second should not be undertaken. Capital seeking investment will be mainly directed in future to the development of urban and interurban electric railroads, a department of transportation which is still in its infancy.

THE TREND TOWARD CONSOLIDATION

"The familiar law of the survival of the fittest applies with especial force to railway management. Concentration is the dominant spirit of the age, for men have come to see that, all things being equal, the conduct of the largest mass is the cheapest and renders the surest profit to labor and capital. To this influence has been principally due the tendency to consolidation of lines — the absorption by lease or purchase of the weak by the strong — which has been at work during the last two decades. The fruits of this policy of consolidation, which is sure to be continued, are manifest even to the layman. It has produced the heavy steel rail, the eighty-ton locomotive, and the continuous haul, and, in an economic sense, has brought the wheat fields of the Northwest approximately as near London and Paris as the farms of Yorkshire and Burgundy. Impelled by competition and consolidation, our railways are better equipped and more ably and economically managed — this with the least burden upon their patrons — than those of any other country in the world. And here let me say that the mooted control of the railways by the government would prove a delusion and a snare. It would double freight and passenger rates, with an opposing loss in the skill, energy, and safety of management. Admirable as it is, our postal system is very far from what it would be had its perfection and development been left to individual impulse and enterprise. American railways have been private enterprises from the first, and it is the part of wisdom to make no change in present conditions. Existing laws give the citizen full and adequate protection against unjust discrimination or demands on the part of railway owners; and he would gain nothing and lose much by a resort to socialistic methods and measures."

OUR GROWING TRADE WITH THE EAST

No man has done more than Mr. Hill to foster our growing trade with the far East. His views on this subject are, therefore, of the first importance. He said: —

"Some years ago I sent an agent to China and Japan to see what steps could be taken to extend the general use of wheat flour in those countries, as against their own rice, and found that it was simply a matter of price, which is largely influenced by transportation. When we have found new mouths, which have never before used wheaten bread, to take the entire California, Oregon, and Washington wheat crops out of the European markets, it must largely reduce the amount going to Europe from America, and will soon affect the yearly shipments from the Argentine to European markets. The Great Northern is now building ships for this trade, which, when put in operation, will carry from twenty to twenty-five thousand tons of freight each. However, it is one thing to build a ship, and another to keep her in operation. If we are to have on the Pacific a merchant marine adequate to our needs, we must be able to operate our ships under as favorable conditions as other nations. The sailors' union fixes the wages of sailors at thirty dollars a month, and of engineers and other ship employees at about twice the wages paid by European steamers, making it impossible to compete on equal terms with the English, German, and other foreign ships already on the Pacific. If our wages are to remain as high as at present, legislation by Congress is needed that will enable American-built ships to be operated at a profit. Such legislation, it seems to me, should take the form, not of direct subsidies, but of a reasonable bounty on exports of certain of our mineral and agricultural products."

Another Trunk Line to the Pacific

CONFIRMATION of Mr. Hill's statement of the forces likely to govern railway construction in the future is furnished by the extension of the Santa Fe system to the Pacific coast, which was one of the most significant developments of the year just closed. To build to San Francisco has long been the cherished desire of the Santa Fe managers, but until recently grave financial obstacles barred the way. When, after reorganization, the Santa Fe was in a position to build the desired extension, outsiders came forward and did the work for it. With a courage scarcely second to that of the builders of the Central Pacific, a small coterie of the citizens of San Francisco subscribed money to build a line from their city to Bakersfield, a distance of 372 miles. Without knowing what trade could be made with the Santa Fe or any other company, these gentlemen built their road, and took chances on having to operate it at a loss, or sell it to some strong Eastern connection. Their purpose was not to make money so much as to break the monopoly in transportation business hitherto held by the Southern Pacific.

When the line was nearly finished, negotiations were opened up with the newly reorganized Santa Fe, and the road was sold to that company. The Atlantic & Pacific, extending from Albuquerque to the Needles, had, in the reorganization, passed to

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the ownership of the Santa Fe, and the line from the Needles to Mojane, formerly the property of the Southern Pacific, had also been acquired. Thus, all the Santa Fe management needed to complete a line to San Francisco was a link between Mojane and Bakersfield, a distance of sixty-nine miles. Such a link already existed in the Southern Pacific's line over Tehachapi Pass — one of the most difficult pieces of railroading in America. President Ripley of the Santa Fe took up this matter with President Huntington of the Southern Pacific, and the Santa Fe now uses the Southern Pacific tracks over Tehachapi, paying a much smaller rental than the interest charge for a new line would come to. This admirable arrangement, profitable to both companies, gives each adequate trackage over the mountains.

Harbor rights were easily procured in San Francisco, because the public has retained ownership of the water frontages of that city, and its people were a unit in desiring the new line. Some very valuable property was purchased for the needs of the freight business, and the equipment of the road from Chicago and Galveston on the east to San Diego, Los Angeles, and San Francisco on the west, is now complete. The new line north and west of Bakersfield passes through Corcoran, Fresno, Merced, and Stockton, and is, therefore, in position to command its share of the business of the most fertile parts of California.

The entrance of this line into the metropolis of the Pacific coast is an event only second in importance to the completion of the original railroad.

Our Changed Financial Relation to Europe

NEVER before in the same period has so large a volume of American capital sought permanent investment as during the past sixty days. For several weeks following the election each full day's recorded dealings on the New York Stock Exchange footed up well over a million shares, and this activity has been mainly impelled, not by speculative impulses, but by a large and continuing demand from investment purchasers. That such is the case is proved by the low interest rates in the money market, which show that the lender of money now seeks the borrower. A good many of the older and stabler "industrial" stocks in this era of profitable production, though they have been a dominant factor in the speculative market, are now recognized as good investment securities. Still another powerful contributor to a rapid and practically uninterrupted advance in prices has been the purchase of large blocks of stock by various interests for the purpose of control or of combination, as has been the case in the Northern Pacific, the Southern Pacific, the Brooklyn Rapid Transit, the Pacific Mail, and the New Jersey Central.

Confidence and expansion are the moving influences in financial and banking circles. Both rest upon a solid basis and one which promises permanency. With an annual and still growing excess of exports over imports amounting to upward of six hundred millions, the amounts due this country from Europe constantly increase in volume. In spite of interest and dividends paid to foreign holders of American securities, in spite of ocean freight charges and the great sums spent by Americans abroad, American investors are invited to subscribe to English, German, Swiss, and Danish loans, nor can the Old World longer settle its obligations to the New in any other way.

The Radical Change toward America in the Orient

MORE than thirty years ago, William H. Seward declared: —

"Who does not see that henceforth every year, European commerce, European politics, European thoughts, and European activity, although actually gaining greater force, and European connections, although actually becoming more intimate, will nevertheless ultimately sink in importance; while the Pacific Ocean, its shores, its islands, and the vast regions beyond, will become the chief theatre of events in the world's great hereafter?"

This forecast is on the eve of fulfilment. Its initiatory act has begun, not, however, according to preconceived plans, but by a series of surprises which no one could foresee, — the Japan-China war; the Spanish-American war; and the ill-conceived scheme of China's rulers, to withdraw from the comity of nations.

Apparently without connection, these three recent events bear directly upon Mr. Seward's forecast, and have changed the current of the world's thought and action. While in Europe they effected the abandoning of the comparatively trifling causes of international jealousy, in favor of solving the huge race question in China, their effect upon the United States was more stupendous still, since they compelled the Republic to act a prominent part, and demanded a new departure in foreign relations.

For the United States, the termination of the Japan-China war, as expressed in the Treaty of Shimonoseki, furnished the impulse for an increase of trade which is surprising; the more so, since the administration abstained from fostering or even assisting it. Until the year 1890, the few steamers of the Pacific Mail Company, alternating with those of the Occidental and Oriental Steamship Company, plying between San Francisco and Hong Kong, were merely adjuncts or "feeders" of the transcontinental railroads, and more than sufficient to carry all merchandise destined for the Orient. The

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British Government, looking for a shorter route to the Far East, and one less liable to obstructions in case of war, heavily subsidized in that year a Canadian steamship line, sailing from Vancouver. In the following year, 1891, the Northern Pacific Railroad Company made arrangements with an English firm to operate a steamship line with Tacoma, Wash., as its terminus. The volume of trade, however, did not warrant the increase in transportation facilities.

AMERICA IN CHINA SINCE 1895

But no sooner had the treaty of Shimonoseki cleared the way for factories in China, than Americans entered the field for new and profitable enterprise. Until 1895 four or five commercial houses were all that remained of the old-time American merchant princes of whom Russell & Co. was once the representative. There was little or no inducement for our merchants to persevere, while the danger to life and property was great, owing to the lack of protection to Americans. It may be unpalatable to most of those who have never crossed the Pacific, but there was no protection in the Orient under the American flag. The Monroe doctrine was interpreted as meaning that the United States would not go to war, however much our citizens in China and Japan were abused. The extent of the abuse suffered by them can be disclosed only by the revelations of the Claim Office in the State Department. At last the American, smarting under insult or offence, ceased to apply to the United States officials, who were powerless, but went to the British consul, who could, and generally did, secure relief. "Avoid friction under any circumstances," was the instruction to our officials. This fact itself is enough to account for the loss in trade and prestige.

If, under these singularly adverse circumstances, American enterprise continued to exist, it was due solely to individual pluck. Li Hung Chang was induced to erect a cotton mill at Shanghai upon the personal demonstrations of Mr. A. W. Danforth, a native of Lowell, Mass., aided by the influence of Mr. Pettick, at that time the tutor to the Viceroy's sons, now secretary of the United States Legation at Pekin. When the Treaty of Shimonoseki cleared away the obstructions to the erection of factories, Mr. James R. Morse initiated, with the construction of the International Cotton Mill, an era of manufacturing, the spirit of which permeated a vast portion of the immense Yang-tse Valley. In Shanghai alone nineteen cotton mills are in operation; they are found besides at Hang Chow, Ningpo, and in places up the river. Silk filatures, flour mills, rice mills, paper mills, and other industrial enterprises with steam or electricity substituted for hand power, found their way into the conservative Middle Kingdom. Steamers ascended the Great River, and their whistle was heard in the deep gorges 1400 miles from the Yellow Sea. Where before ten American citizens had celebrated the nation's anniversary, hundreds gathered on the Fourth of July.

A REVISED TRADE WITH JAPAN

As in China, so it was in Japan. Notwithstanding the utter absence of protection, of which many a ledger in the United States can furnish palpable proof, the tea and silk trade had gradually passed into the hands of American merchants. The China and Japan Trading Co., the American Trading Co., A. A. Vantine & Co., Smith, Baker & Co., Everett Frazar & Co., Fearon, Daniel & Co., and a host of other commercial houses well known in New York, extended their operations. One firm bought realty, and erected suitable offices and warehouses. Americans entered into serious competition with the merchants of Great Britain and Germany, and as if in compliment to the enterprise thus manifested, the Japanese government ordered the construction of two cruisers, the *Kasagi* and the *Chitose*.

At this time the increase of trade was satisfactory. British merchants, foreseeing the time when American influence must be felt, founded branch houses in the United States. In 1895, responding to the demand for increased transportation facilities, another steamship line was put on between Hong Kong and Portland, Ore. It has since been purchased by Dodwell & Co. Japan's great steamship company, the Nippon Yusen Kaisha, made arrangements with the Great Northern Railroad to connect at Seattle, Wash. The Toyo Kisen Kaisha entered into connections with the Southern Pacific Railroad, and its three magnificent steamers crossed the Pacific to San Francisco. The Atchison, Topeka & Santa Fe Railroad connects with the California and Oriental Steamship Company, at San Diego, Cal. Besides these trans-Pacific lines, the Perry, Barber, and Indra companies despatch steamers regularly from New York via the Suez Canal; and large corporations, such as the Standard Oil Company and Baldwin Locomotive Works, charter a fleet of sailing vessels.

The increase in trade demanded imperatively an adequate protection, which the United States was unable to afford, owing to the spirit of its institutions as enunciated in the Monroe doctrine. Who will call it fate that at this moment the war with Spain impelled the administration to break the shackles of its narrow policy and by the acquisition of the Philippine Islands to afford exactly the protection that was needed? Since Dewey's guns con-

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vinced a doubting world that American warships are capable of rendering the service expected of them, the position of the American resident in China and Japan has changed. No longer the inferior, he is at least the equal of the British and German competitors. Expatriation to the Far East no longer entails hardship and suffering, nor the humiliation of seeing the flag disregarded.

The New Basis of Southern Prosperity

FOR thirty-five years, the cotton crops, great and small, brought into the country about 300 millions of dollars. The principal market was England, with a second market in New England, and the buyers, samplers, and shippers who sold the crop absorbed a large part of its value. The price fell to 6, 5, and even 4 cents a pound, so that the crop of 1898, though one of the largest on record, brought only about 230 million dollars. The crop of 1899 was much less than the crop of the year before, yet it was marketed for almost 400 million dollars; and the crop of 1900, now marketed, has brought fully 500 million dollars. The price in 1899, beginning at 5½ cents in August, went up to 7 and 8 cents before the close of the year, and much of the crop of the present year has been marketed at 10½ cents.

While the decreased production has some relation to this increase of value, it is not the chief cause of it. For the past ten years cotton mills have been multiplying in the South, and in North and South Carolina the needs of these mills have outstripped the local supply. In September, 1899, every mill in the Southern belt entered the "spot" market, offering 8 cents a pound when the New York quotation was 7 cents. Their demand had become large enough to make the price. And having no freight and middlemen's charges to pay they could give for the bale at the factory door 2 cents a pound more than the foreign buyer. Against this increasing local demand the mills of the rest of the world will have to strive for their share of the South's production of the raw material. The cotton planter will not have to sell at the Liverpool quotation as long as there is a higher local "spot" quotation.

The industrial significance of this situation is twofold. In the future the manufacture of cotton is likely to transfer itself more and more to the United States; and the Southern planter has been greatly helped, and the prosperity of the South has been fixed on a firmer foundation. The effect has been widespread. The cis-Mississippi states are now covered with agricultural and mechanical exhibitions; the towns and the cities have felt the thrill of renewed energy; business houses are enlarging; and the industries which depend on cotton and general agriculture are increasing in capacity. One recent day's record at a single counter of an Atlanta drygoods house was twenty-one thousand purchasers. This new prosperity, moreover, rests on a firmer basis than the price of an agricultural staple; for if cotton falls, the manufacturer reaps the advantage; if the price rises, a profit for both farmer and manufacturer is reaped. The South is now both buyer and seller, so that no turn of the market can fail to benefit it. A similar condition holds with reference to the truck and fruit of Florida; to the coal and iron of Alabama and Tennessee; and to the tobacco of Kentucky and North Carolina. This is the new and permanent basis of Southern prosperity.



STEAMSHIP BUILDING BY THE GREAT NORTHERN.

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MAJOR-GENERAL ADNA R. CHAFFEE.

Commanding American forces in China.

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THE WORLD'S WORK

FEBRUARY 1901

VOLUME I NUMBER 4

The March of Events

A HINT is given of the unparalleled increase of wealth in the United States last year by the dividend payments that were made in January. Through the organized channels of banks and trust companies in New York alone, there was paid out on January 2, the enormous sum of $140,000,000. The year before the payments through the same channels were $10,000,000 less; and four years ago the sum was hardly more than half as great. These dividend and interest payments made through the organized channels of disbursement in New York city are of course but a mere fraction of the earnings of capital for the last half-year; for thousands of companies and all private corporations and firms make their payments directly to their stockholders and partners. There is no method of computing their amount.

And the earnings of labor and of professional work have been still more. The abounding prosperity is indicated also by the two and a half billions of dollars held in the savings banks by six millions of depositors; and a striking measure of the rate of enrichment is given by the conservative estimate that there are now more than 4000 millionaires among us. They have become too common to attract attention, and the mere possession of great wealth no longer confers distinction. No other country ever had so many rich men, nor so many that are well-to-do, nor pushed forward so rapidly in the getting of wealth.

The first impulse of congratulation soon takes the sober tone in a thoughtful mind of the responsibility that such prosperity brings. It will try men's character and put to the severest test the prudence and the self-restraint of the people. The problems of providing proper training for the young and of maintaining a well-balanced democratic life become more serious than they were when we were younger and poorer. Yet no man who knows the social and economic history of the American people, and who understands the deeper meaning of democracy, can doubt the essential soundness of their character or judgment, or harbor fear for the future. Democracy is vindicating itself in concrete ways, — even by its earnings of money, its diffused and almost universal earnings; and the winning of success has been the best discipline of character.

These rapid strides toward generally diffused prosperity bring several interesting results. One result is that almost every man of original force is becoming at least reasonably well-to-do. Another is that there is less need, so far as one's personal comfort is concerned, to trouble one's self about accumulating property. A comparatively poor man

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BUDDHIST STATUGRAPHS.

The jewel placed before the central figure is a sort of idol's eye. The crescent is of moonstone; the central jewel is a red stone somewhat like a ruby, while the stone at the top of the piece is of a pale blue color.

may now enjoy comforts and even luxuries that were beyond the reach of the rich in any previous era.



COSTUME OF THE EMPEROR.

The figure before it is a sort of Chinese sceptre, cloisonné peacock inlaid with pure gold. The garment itself is of lilac silk, very heavily embroidered with gold.

WILL CHARACTER DECLINE IN PROSPERITY?

IN considering the effect of wealth on character, the first fact that strikes a man who draws his conclusions from his own observations, and not from books written about pre-



ROSEWOOD CHEST WITH HAND-CARVED DRAGON.

The snuff bottles on top of the chest are cut from jade carnelian and lapis-laruli. The stoppers are of turquoise and pearl.

vious conditions of life and work — is this, that our prosperity is the product, in the last analysis, of the character of the people.

The character of the people is the main element in it. Other things contribute to it.



SACRED JADE STONE TABLETS—

Of the Emperor Kwang Su's mother — inlaid with Witch Manchu and Chinese characters in gold. These tablets recite the life and great deeds of the late Empress.

Coal and iron and copper, the rich soil of the prairies, the cotton lands and the forests — most bountiful is our raw material, most inviting our rich continent, and Nature blesses us most lavishly. But the American citizen has become a better farmer than his competitor in other lands, a better miner, a better master of tools, a better worker in metal and

LOOT FROM THE FORBIDDEN CITY, PEKING.

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WILHELMINA, QUEEN OF HOLLAND,
Who is engaged to marry Duke Henry of Mechlenburg-Schwerin on February 7, 1901.

wood and leather, a better builder, a better organizer, an abler captain of industry. And he has attained his skill and his grasp and his daring because he has been a free man. If he can make a machine do the work that a hundred hands have done before, he is free to use the machine. If he can cheapen a process of production by a great combination of industries, he is free to combine them.

The American man, then, may be trusted with the great responsibility that falls to him as the industrial master of the world, and as a citizen of the world's richest commonwealth.

EUROPEAN EXPLANATION OF AMERICAN PROGRESS

THE inevitable result of American industrial development now that it is finding full expression has struck European economists with surprise. The London *Times* attributes American industrial leadership to two prime causes: —

"The choice given to youth is the chief secret of the amazing enterprise exhibited by the American iron and steel trade during the last dozen years. Youth gets a position which is supposed here to belong to long experience. There it is believed that for business purposes demanding energy and fresh perceptions a man of thirty is as good as he is likely to be."

It is not so much a deliberate choice given to youth; it is the habit that American youth have of going directly at important tasks, and the opportunity that capable men can make for themselves, in youth or in later life.

In its second reason *The Times* is more accurate: —

"He takes his pleasure in what he is doing, and is not afraid to admit that he is in pork or in grain if the fact be so. He is curious as to all that affects his business, and he is open to new ideas in a way which is unusual with us."

This strikes close to the core of the matter —"he takes his pleasure in what he is doing."

And herein is the sound philosophical reason why a discontented and despairing man is an unsocial and undemocratic product and a positive evil in the community.

ENGLISH TRADE UNIONS AS A HINDRANCE

DISCUSSING the same subject of American industrial supremacy, the London *Spectator* concludes that the cause of England's falling behind is the refusal of English workmen under the influence of the trade



THE LATE OSWALD OTTENDORFER,
Editor of the New York *Staats Zeitung*

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HALL WHERE CHIEF JUSTICE MARSHALL SAT AT THE TRIAL OF AARON BURR.

unions to render an honest equivalent for their wages. It says: —

"We believe if a deputation of British trades unionists of the best type were to visit America and conduct a thorough investigation of trade conditions there, they would return convinced that their duty to their countrymen in future would be best discharged by encouraging the universal practice of the best and hardest work compatible with health during recognized working hours."

So far, so good. But the cause lies deeper than this proposed remedy. There is a reason why the English trade union represses the individuality and the skill of the workman more than the American trade union. It is the deeper feeling of class distinction. The very structure of society plays a primary part in this difference.

Mr. William Clarke takes up the subject in the *Contemporary Review* and says that a democratic people will always outstrip an aristocratic people in industry, because a democratic people have no better taste than to enjoy their toil; that the great centres of industry will gradually pass from England to lands where the English stock has developed democratic conditions of society, and England itself will never become democratic; that it will remain aristocratic because the love of a lord is a deeper sentiment than the desire for equal opportunity; that more and more England will become the pleasure-place for the idle rich of the Western world who have ceased to love their work and have developed social aspirations of an aristocratic kind, and wish to have better personal service than can be found in a democracy.



THE TOMBS OF CHIEF JUSTICE MARSHALL AND HIS WIFE IN THE OLD SHOCKOE CEMETERY, RICHMOND, VA.



THE MONUMENTAL CHURCH IN RICHMOND, VA., WHERE MARSHALL WORSHIPPED.

A NEW BASIS OF PATRIOTISM

ONE noteworthy fact that marks the progress of the past century is the change in the expression of American patriotism. A hundred years ago we thanked God that we were not as other men were because we had no king. The possible danger of royalty runs through all Jefferson's writings. He misjudged Hamilton and Marshall, and even suspected Washington because he feared that they had a toleration of what he regarded as monarchical tendencies. The dominant fact about democracy in all men's minds then was the democratic form of government. The real

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JOHN MARSHALL.

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From a portrait, considered by experts the best extant, for many years in the possession of Chief Justice Gray and reproduced through his courtesy.



JOHN MARSHALL.
From a silhouette hanging on the walls of the Virginia Historical Society.

democratic structure of society they had in fact not achieved. Slavery existed, and well-defined social classes in a different sense from any social classes that exist among us to-day. Students at Harvard College used to be enrolled, not alphabetically, but in the order of the social distinction of their fathers. The Old World prejudice against a man who worked with his hands, and to a degree also against a man in trade, was still general and strong. American patriotism then sounded the note of government forms and hatred of kings.

The note has significantly changed, and a very different one is sounded at the beginning of this century. Patriotism now expresses itself in terms that are essentially industrial. To build a better bridge in British India than any British builder, and to build it more quickly; to equip railroads with locomotives in British South Africa — even these things find expression in patriotic terms. The higher things that these imply are the real basis of a very substantial patriotism — namely, the freedom of opportunity which has made these achievements possible. It is insistence on the same freedom of opportunity that now finds expression in the extension of free education, the multiplication of free libraries, and the long list of activities that are peculiarly American. Industrial and even purely mechanical achievements, therefore, rest on a patriotic basis, not because they fill our coffers, but because they demonstrate the superiority of the man reared under freedom of opportunity over the man reared under the restricted opportunity of Old World social conditions.

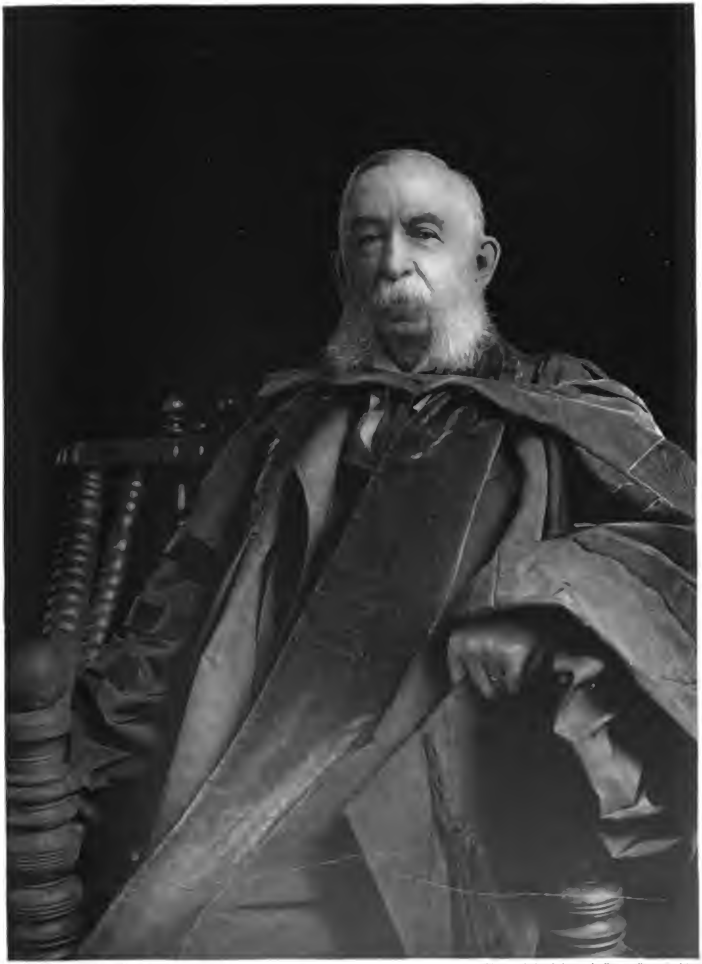
THREE NOTEWORTHY MEN

IN an unusually long list of notable men who have died during the month are Mr. Oswald Ottendorfer, editor of the New York *Staats-Zeitung*, Ex-Governor Wolcott, of Massachusetts, and the historian, Professor Moses Coit Tyler, of Cornell University. Mr. Ottendorfer enjoyed the distinction, with Mr. Schurz, of belonging to the party of revolutionary German youth whose romantic and heroic attachment to liberty caused their expatriation, and who won great influence and honor as American citizens. Mr. Ottendorfer made a most generous and public-spirited use of his wealth and of the power of his newspaper. Mr. Wolcott came as near as any man of his generation to the ideal of a perfect public servant — a man of fortune, of cultivation, of industry, of the greatest public spirit, and of the keenest conscientiousness. Professor Tyler has left a monument of industry in his Literary History of the American Revolution and of the Colonial Period.

THE JOHNS HOPKINS UNIVERSITY

DR. DANIEL C. GILMAN, after a service of twenty-five years, resigns the presidency of the Johns Hopkins University. He has earned the distinction in a greater degree perhaps than any other man engaged in American educational work, of having so directed a single institution as radically to effect higher education throughout the whole country. The character of the Johns Hopkins University is the personal creation of Mr. Gilman. When he was called to its head, the trustees gave him a singularly free hand to shape it. He searched the whole world over,

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Photographed in Baltimore by Frances Benjamin Johnston.

PRESIDENT DANIEL C. GILMAN,
Of the Johns Hopkins University.

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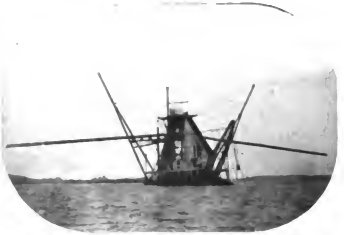


VIEWS IN NICARAGUA, WHERE CANAL WILL BE CUT.
MARITIME CANAL COMPANY'S RAILROAD, NICARAGUA.

and brought together such a company of investigators as had not before been gathered about any American institution. Twenty-five years ago the greatest of our universities paid scant attention to research; but now every one has its graduate department, and lays great emphasis on original work. Development in this direction would have taken place with a certain rapidity by the natural pressure of events, but the great impetus given to it by Mr. Gilman's organization of the Johns Hopkins University greatly hastened it. It began its career with a degree of freedom and daring that no other one of our institutions had at its birth. Mr. Huxley delivered the inaugural address, Mr. Huxley's great pupil, Dr. Martin, accepted the chair of Biology, Dr. Rowland became the head of the department of Physics, Dr. Remsen, of Chemistry, Mr. Sylvester, of Mathematics, Dr. Gildersleeve, of Greek, and later, Mr. Lanier, of English, and so on in all the departments. Dr. Osler, Dr. Welch, and others of similar aims put the Medical School and the Hopkins Hospital on the same high plane. A larger proportion of men trained at Johns Hopkins than at any other university now fill chairs in other institutions. The credit for this particular direction of work is due to Mr. Gilman. He has, therefore, the satisfaction not only of having established the university over which he has presided, but of having given a new direction and a new impulse to higher American education in general; and a greater distinction than this no man of his profession in this generation has earned.



ENGINE ON MARITIME CANAL COMPANY'S RAILROAD.



THE CANAL COMPANY'S DREDGE, CITY OF NEW YORK, IN GREYTOWN HARBOR.

The university has had an unfortunate financial experience, because a large part of its endowment consisted of the stock of a railroad which its founder conceived to be the securest form of investment. The promise of recovery from insufficient financial support ought to stir the friends of higher learning to endow it munificently. It has won the right of perpetual existence — unimpaired.

DUMB AND FORMLESS SCHOLARSHIP

IN one sense the Johns Hopkins University fulfilled its mission when it emphasized the value of research and made original investigation the fashion in American education, — in other words, transplanted and naturalized the German university. What may (with all proper respect to great learning that is dumb) be called a companion task

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in American training awaits and cries out for proper development. During these twenty-five years of research-work, the Hopkins University, many scholars as it has trained, has not turned out one who has attained the highest distinction or a widespread or long-lived influence by his gift of expression — not a Huxley of the Essays or of the Lay Sermons or of the Letters. Or consider the Department of History (since the same subject was discussed the other day at the meeting of the American Historical Association), hardly more than one Hopkins student of History has a style good enough to save him. A member of the English faculty at Harvard, where there are post-graduate courses in great number in History and in English, declared recently, perhaps in a mood of too great despondency, that in fifteen years Harvard had not turned out a man who writes with distinction. The advance in sound scholarship during this period has been incalculable. But is it not a proper part of the training of men that they should be taught to write so that to read them will not be penal labor? Or is style the forthright gift of God? And are our scientific masters willing to admit either that it is not desirable, or that they do not know how to find out the secrets of it? One of our ripest scholars, Professor Price of Columbia, declared the other day in an address before the Modern Language Association, that this helpless and hopeless dulness and formlessless of contemporaneous writing are visited on us for our neglect of Greek literature — for our neglect of the sense of form that is sharpened by the study of Homer and of the Greek dramatists. Greek literature is the greatest school of literary form, yet many an Englishman has written our tongue with distinction who knew little Latin and less Greek; and most of our Greek scholars



THE BRUTON PARISH CHURCH AT WILLIAMSBURG, VA.

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VIEWS OF THE NEW SUBWAY IN NEW YORK CITY.

Taken in the up-town locality where solid rock has been pierced by means of blasting.

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THE NEW SUBWAY IN NEW YORK CITY.
A view of Union Square in front of "The World's Work" office.

themselves write — at least with less than great distinction of style. The whole secret of the pitiable dumbness of our scholars is not quite explained, we fear, by Mr. Price's theory.

Accuracy and original research are the right passports to an academic career; but these are not all of life nor of learning. An historian who cannot make his narrative interesting is damned already, and no amount of learning and research can save him. The common sense of the English race always swings back to this conclusion, however far our academicians may wander from it for a time; and it rests with them to explain why, with all our advancement in sound learning, so many more educated Englishmen than Americans write our common tongue with distinction; and why it is that in academic circles it is no reproach to an American scholar to write without style and without proportion.

THE PRESERVATION OF HISTORIC PLACES

THE New York Society for the Preservation of Scenic and Historic Places and Objects, under the presidency of Mr. Andrew H. Green, has so extended its influence that the trustees have applied to Congress for the creation of a national society. It has already accomplished so much in the state of New York that its continued and wider activity is of the greatest possible interest to all who take an increasing pride in American history and scenery. All over the Union such a pride is more alert by far than it ever was before. A joint commission of the states of New York and New Jersey has just succeeded in arresting the quarrymen's destruction of the Palisades of the Hudson River, which is a matter of interest to the whole country; for a long time a society in Massachusetts has been putting up tablets on buildings and spots of historic interest; and in Virginia there is

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MR. RHODES AND HIS FRIENDS HOME FROM A HUNT
In the Kimberley Club's preserves. (*See page 307.*)

an active effort to preserve and in a measure to restore the church of Bruton parish at Williamsburg — a building of as rich historic value as any in the Union. The study of our own history, the epidemic of historical fiction, and the Daughters and Sons of all our historical epochs are teaching us the value of our background, and there is no more wholesome lesson.

MR. BRYAN AND HIS PAPER

THE future of the Democratic party continues to be discussed, chiefly by its opponents, but in very general terms. Only one specific suggestion has been made — that Mr. Bryan be retired as a presidential candidate. This is plainly what Mr. Cleveland meant when he wrote that the party should return to first principles and should give the rank and file a chance. Mr. Bryan's indirect response shows that he understood Mr. Cleveland. But he still stands for the Kansas City platform — in other words, for free silver. Yet, what candidate ever forswore his own platform?

It has been reported that nearly all the Democratic Executive Committee insist on Mr. Bryan's retirement. But Senator Jones, the chairman, was stirred by this announcement to deny that anybody had suggested such a thing; and Mr. Bryan himself, at a public dinner in Lincoln, Neb., refrained from saying that he would not again be a candidate. It is almost inconceivable that the Democratic party will again nominate him. But if the managers wish to make sure of avoiding such a mistake, they will do well to have a candidate in training some time before the next national convention meets.

While the general discussion goes on, Mr. Bryan is preparing his weekly paper, *The Commoner*, and his friends are sending their subscriptions to him in great numbers. There

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CECIL RHODES.

(*See page 367.*)

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BIRD'S-EYE VIEW OF THE FORTHCOMING PAN-AMERICAN EXPOSITION AT BUFFALO.
As seen in the studio of Mr. Turner.

is no public man now living who has as many personal friends as Mr. Bryan; and for this reason, if for no other, his weekly paper will prosper greatly for a period. But it cannot have a permanent success, for it must be a personal organ. It will be a legitimate means of earning an income and of keeping an active publicity. But since it will not compete in news-gathering with the daily papers, and will not be a merely local paper, it cannot come to have an institutional value. It will not be a necessary part of the community life where it is printed. It must be simply a personal organ. Mr. Bryan can do nothing to prevent such a result. There is no such paper now alive in the United States, but many have at various times had a temporary prosperity. Mr. Henry George's *Standard* was one of the last. One of the hardest lessons for preachers, clerical or lay, to learn is that the twentieth century, whatever it turn out to be, is clearly not going to be the century of sermons. It will learn what it will learn by events and by action, and it will care far less for anybody's doctrine than any of its predecessors in the Christian era.



A VIEW OF THE MACHINERY AND TRANSPORTATION BUILDING — PAN-AMERICAN EXPOSITION.

A TYPICAL LOCAL NEWSPAPER

BUT there is a kind of weekly paper that has an institutional value, and a kind of sermon, not of doctrine but of duty, that still

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bears fruit. The Emporia *Gazette*, in Kansas, is such a paper, and such a sermon was published in the position of honor in its Christmas number:

"Emporia is a good, substantial, homelike, wholesome, clean-faced, good-hearted, businesslike place to live. . . . There is no gambling house in town and practically no poor people to support. . . . The boys and girls are educating themselves in the best [public] schools in Kansas, and the jail is empty for months at a time. . . . The Emporia banks show about a million dollars on deposit. Money for sensible investments may be had at from 5 to 6 per cent. Wages of clerks range from $1 to $5 a day, and the cost of living makes it possible for every man to save money and buy a home. Five-sixths of the houses of Emporia are owned by the men who live in them, and the social order of the town is not based on money."

Now the constant encouragement of a town spirit that takes pride in such facts, and in all that these facts imply, makes the paper a local institution; and the editor, who happens in this generation to be Mr. William Allen White, becomes a sort of high priest of good sense and orderliness and thrift for the community. And the paper is the organ of these homely conquering qualities. It has something more than a personal character: it is institutional and permanent.

THE NEW COMMONWEALTH OF AUSTRALIA

ON the first day of the new century the Commonwealth of Australia came into being, and the Earl of Hopetoun was inaugurated at Sydney with proper ceremony as the first Governor-General. This was an event of prime importance in political history. The new Commonwealth is the third great English state; and the colonies that compose it have shown themselves more flexible and daring in their political development than men of English stock elsewhere. Mr. Henry D. Lloyd's interesting book on "Newest England" records, with enthusiasm but with accuracy, the interesting experiments in advanced democracy that distinguish these states from England and the United States and Canada. A somewhat different type of man has been developed there. The new Commonwealth now contains three and a half millions of people, with riches of many sorts — mines, agriculture, stock — and with extensions of state-functions such as were never before tried by men who have the common sense and balanced judgment that go with English blood.

The movement toward the confederation that has at last been accomplished has stretched itself over about a dozen years. There were difficult intercolonial questions to settle, and England's consent to obtain, and a proper form of confederation to devise. Great Britain has learned well the lesson of the American Revolution, and the new Commonwealth has its freedom from annoying crown control and keeps its loyalty strong to the mother country. The new government has a protective tariff against all foreign countries, but free trade between its several states, and the federation has other points of resemblance to the United States. The franchise is the same; the powers of Parliament are limited by the states as in the United States, and all questions of purely Australasian interests are adjudicated by the Supreme Court, and only those that involve other than Australasian interests go to the Queen in Council. The whole organization is a step in advance toward complete independence over the organization of the Dominion of Canada.

THE WAR IN SOUTH AFRICA

THE glare of apparent war still hangs red over South Africa. When viewed from a distance it casts an enlarged reflection, and appears lurid and formidable. When it is viewed close at hand it is a spread-out fire in the brushwood. It is not a conflagration, but it is menacing, for it smoulders in an inflammable region.

The pacification of the Boer country, "the raider's ground," is a wearisome task. It will cost more lives and more treasure. In the ranks of the scattered forces are between two thousand and three thousand colonial rebels. If captured, they will have to face charges of high treason. They prefer to fight as long as they can — as who would not in their place? Although their punishment may be light when the end comes, they will elude capture as long as possible. With them are hundreds of implacable and proscribed men who have nothing to win or to lose. Then

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there are a few European adventurers and a large proportion of the most ignorant Dutch, who have never seen an English proclamation and could not read one if they had. They believe any tale that is told to them, and they are kept afield partly through fear, partly by ignorance of the terms offered if they will lay down their arms. The English mistaken policy of leniency at one time and harshness at another has produced a feeling of distrust among them. Then there are the leaders — men whose names have become synonyms of partisan strategy, military knowledge, and resourcefulness. No one is so willing to give them credit for all those qualities as the rank and file of the English army, and none so eager to extend the hand of friendship and admiration when the war is over. Then there is the country, the vastness of which is not understood, a country larger than France, Germany, and Spain all put together; and there is the store of buried ammunition, prepared long ago for the present contest, which was not unforeseen by either side.

This mobile force helps itself to the property of friend and foe alike, and to that of the former neutral, the Kaffir. They have a complete knowledge of the country, the power of disbanding and reuniting, the ability to march without transports. The fighting Boer of to-day lays aside his rifle to-morrow and becomes for a day the injured burgher who desires nothing but peace. The next day he is the soldier again.

The difficulties of the problem surely are many. Both sides are weary of it, for there are more Boers under the protection of the English, exclusive of those in prison, than in the active commands. The world, too, is weary of it. And there can be but one end; England cannot draw back. Losses, mistakes, errors of judgment, wrongs, a heavy cost, and carelessness may have made the past, but there can be but one course for the future. But if England is wise, she will make use of the Afrikander spirit and sentiment in the work of reconstruction. For if this task is not done wisely and well, the conflagration may start again.

Very early in the new year Lord Roberts arrived in England, was created an Earl, and at once went about his duties as Commander-in-Chief of the British army.

THE BEGINNING OF THE END IN CHINA

THE civilized world is very weary of the trouble in China, and it was with relief that it read of the sending of the preliminary note to the Chinese government signed by the ministers of the Powers and its probable immediate acceptance by the Emperor. The terms are severe — measured by Western standards, even brutal. But those who know the Oriental character best say that such severity is necessary. If so, may the execution of the agreement be hastened so that Christian civilization may turn to pleasanter duties. The terms imposed upon China by this agreement are —

The sending of a special imperial messenger to Berlin to express regret for the murder of the German minister, and the putting up of a commemorative tablet on the spot where he was killed; and reparation to the Japanese government for the murder of a Japanese official.

The "severest punishment" of a large number of princes and leaders of the anti-foreign crusade; and the suspension for five years of official examinations in the cities where foreigners were killed. [This is equivalent to the exclusion of the ambitious Chinese in these cities from seeking government positions, — the highest honor in the Empire. It is akin to disfranchisement.]

The putting up of an expiatory monument in every foreign cemetery that was desecrated.

The prevention of the importation of firearms and of materials to be used for making them.

"Equitable indemnities" to foreign governments, societies, and individuals.

Permanent legation guards.

The destruction of all forts that may obstruct communication between Peking and the sea, and the military occupation by the Powers of certain places for the same purpose.

Membership in any anti-foreign society to be punished by death.

New treaties with foreign Powers, a reform of the Chinese foreign office, and the reception of foreign representatives in an Occidental rather than an Oriental way.

Such terms imposed upon any Western government would be equivalent to overthrowing it. Its effect on China will be to prevent anti-foreign activity, to give the Powers practical control over the Empire in case anti-foreign activity should begin again, to prevent the government from obstructing any march on its capital, and to force it to mortgage its rev-

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enues to pay indemnities. China will be open for exploitation, legitimate and illegitimate. Nominally the integrity of the Empire will be respected; but its real independence will be taken away.

Presumably the Powers will soon ratify this agreement, in substance; and then the first chapter in modern Chinese history will be closed. The second chapter will probably be financial and industrial exploitation.

CHRISTIAN WAYS IN A HEATHEN CAPITAL

THE sooner that this chapter in Chinese history can be ended, the better; for the foreign occupation is not bringing results that are wholly satisfactory to civilization. The report is easily credible that in many of the provinces under a paralyzed local government there is great unrest, and the danger is constant of renewed anti-foreign outbreaks; "punitive" expeditions have been continued, and foreign forces away from the central command at Peking are "foreign devils" in fact. "The killing of Chinese," says one despatch, "is still fashionable in Peking." The Germans are reported as having beheaded thirteen men for merely trivial offences. When, on December 31, at the busiest hour of the day, the man who shot the German minister was beheaded in the street where the minister fell, he was kept in a posture ready for execution for half an hour till the German officers should arrive who wished to witness it. Meantime the question of precedence between the German commander-in-chief and the German minister causes trouble in the social life of Peking.

A BUDDHIST APPEAL TO CHRISTENDOM

A VERY remarkable document, which has hardly received the attention that it deserves, was issued some time ago by "Representatives of the Great Japan Buddhists' Union at their headquarters within the Kenninji temple in Kyoto, Empire of Great Japan"; and it was addressed to "our reverend ecclesiastical brethren of the world," of all religions. These Buddhists set forth in a temperate and respectful way their conviction that the disturbances in China "had their origin in the workings of religion," and they made an appeal for the welfare of China and for religion that will build up character. "The forms of religion in the world," they declare, "are manifold," and all the advanced forms of religions are based upon the principle of love for mankind, with "the avowed object of securing for the world a higher state of happiness and prosperity." These priests see "the great truth shining above" and "four hundred million souls groping below."

This impressive appeal, addressed especially to Christendom, first expresses sincere admiration for the Christian missionaries who have wisely worked for the spread of their religion. Then the letter declares that the cause of the implacable hostility of the Chinese toward foreigners was the apprehension and terror that the Christian missionaries inspired, because they "have arrogated to themselves the power of protecting the followers of their creed in utter disregard of the latter's criminality under the laws of the state." The Chinese, therefore, believed that the missionaries were instruments in carrying out the intrigues of their own governments. The analysis of the situation ends with the following statement and appeal: —

> "As a matter of fact, the propagators of religion ought to seek for peace, and inspire men with the principles of humanity, but the missionaries in China have constantly assumed an obnoxious attitude, and have thus brought upon the religious world a great disgrace and chagrin.
>
> "Such being the case, we, the Buddhists of Japan, cannot but express our desire that all the ecclesiastics in the world should, in conjunction with us, recognize the above fact — a fact which clearly shows that the missionaries in China have proceeded far beyond the fundamental principles of religion — and devote their energies to formulating a plan by which the suspicion as well as the apprehension harbored by the Chinese against the foreign missionaries may speedily be removed."

These Buddhists then make two definite propositions: —

> (1) "That the ecclesiastical authorities in the world should exercise their influence in restraining the missionaries in China from proceedings which are likely to create suspicion on the part of the Chinese as to the existence of their secret connection with the foreign policy of their own countries.
>
> (2) "Nor should they be allowed to claim compensation for damages incurred, as they have hitherto done, for nothing can be more incompatible with the true principles of religion."

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GENERAL CHAFFEE AND THE LOOTING OF PEKING

GENERAL CHAFFEE sent a "rude" note of protest to Count von Waldersee against the looting of the Chinese imperial palace, in which he reminded the commander-in-chief that the looting had not been done by the troops that shared the hardships of the campaign, but by later comers.

It is presumed that he meant the Germans. The note was returned to the American general as discourteous; but his protest has been heard round the world, and most emphatically approved in the United States. The French government has refused to permit the plunder sent home by French soldiers to be landed, and has ordered an inquiry. The imperial palace and everything else has been looted most barbarously. All accounts agree that the foreign occupation of Peking has been a succession of acts of vandalism.

General Chaffee's brusque protest is characteristic of the man. The incident recalls his action years ago, when he was a cavalry captain in the West. He was ordered to look after some unruly Indians in Arizona. Just before starting out, he dropped into the signal office and asked if there were any orders for him from Washington.

"No, sir," said the operator.

"Well," was Chaffee's reply, "I am going out to look for some Indians. I shouldn't be surprised if your telegraph lines were cut. You will probably hear of some dead Indians, but you will hardly get anything from Washington."

The captain and his troop went forth; the wires were cut, and there were several dead Indians in the morning — but no orders were received from Washington telling Chaffee not to "shoot first."

SIGNIFICANT SOUTHERN EDUCATIONAL ACTIVITY

THE increasing educational activity in many of the Southern States is cause for congratulation. In Georgia, for instance, the state Senate voted for the public schools this year $1,000,000, an increase of $200,000 over the previous year; but the House did not agree to the increase, much to the regret of a large part of the public sentiment of the state. Yet $40,000 was appropriated for the State School of Technology, and an appropriation was made for the erection of a textile building there. Private benefactions have increased this sum.

The same direction is given to educational effort in Alabama, which appropriated a large sum for the Boyd Industrial School at Birmingham. This is an institution which owes its existence to the activity of the women of that manufacturing city. The public school appropriation in Alabama is this year $1,000,000. It was only $544,000 ten years ago.

In fact, industrial and technical education is receiving a great impulse everywhere in the South — for both races. At the session of the Southern Educational Association in Richmond, Va., in December, which was attended by 500 persons from all parts of the South, the Chancellor of the University of Mississippi sketched a plan for a great industrial school for the blacks, a proper endowment of which would require not less than $3,000,000. That men's minds should run in this direction is something gained. Three million dollars could not be better given than for such a purpose. A plan has been made for the conference on Southern education (attended by both Northern and Southern men), which has for several years been held at Capon Springs, W. Va., to be held this year at Winston, N. C. One result of this conference will be the emphasis put on industrial training.

Indeed, the success of practical education in the trades and crafts, for both races, is the significant thing in Southern thought and effort. The popularity of the idea implies a revolution.

A THREATENED DANGER TO VIRGINIA

THE one tendency that has for a long time spasmodically threatened to retard public school education for the blacks (and, therefore, for the whole community) in one Southern state after another, has come up again in Virginia. There is a party that proposes to limit the appropriations for Negro schools in proportion to the taxes paid by Negroes. In Virginia, for instance, the Negroes are one-third of the population, and the Negro schools receive one-third of the public school fund; but they pay only one-ninth of the school tax. The proposition, therefore, is to give the

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Negro schools only one-ninth instead of one-third of the school fund.

Such a programme has been proposed and defeated in nearly every Southern state. Only Mississippi, we believe, has a constitution that will permit it; and an amendment permitting it was adopted by that state at the last election. Even the programme of Negro disfranchisement is far less dangerous than such a discrimination made in the appropriation of school money. It throws the weaker race on its own slender resources for public education, and denies the state's obligation to the most ignorant and dependent part of the population — a step so far backward that it is hard to believe that there is serious danger of its being taken at this late day in Virginia. To disfranchise the Negro and to leave him to pay his own school bills — that is to make him forever an incubus on the community, with little hope for him or for the community. Such action would be a startling indication of civic decay.

HOW NEGRO DISFRANCHISEMENT HAS WORKED

THE disfranchisement of the Negro is forthwith to be accomplished in Virginia. An extra session of the Legislature will meet January 23 to issue a call for a state convention so to amend the constitution as to deprive the mass of the blacks of the ballot. Virginia will then put itself in line with the Carolinas, Mississippi, and Louisiana; and Alabama is likely soon to follow.

While well-informed public sentiment everywhere would approve the disfranchisement of the illiterate, white and black alike, it is plain that the dominant Southern sentiment approves the disfranchisement of the illiterate black but lacks the fairness and the courage to disfranchise the illiterate white man also. The Virginian convention seems likely to accomplish the result by a variation of the "grandfather" clause (which permits an illiterate man to vote if his father or grandfather voted before the Negro was enfranchised) by permitting illiterate men to vote whose fathers or grandfathers were in military service. This provision will give the ballot to most illiterate whites and to few illiterate Negroes. For it will disfranchise practically all the blacks and practically no whites. The frankly avowed purpose in all these states is simply to disbar the Negro. The provocation to do this any man who knows Southern conditions can understand. Heretofore, it is frankly confessed, the Negro has been disbarred by fraud; and is it not better to disbar him openly by law? But the selection of illiteracy as a disqualifying reason is not frank; for illiterate white men are nowhere disfranchised. The motive, therefore, is deliberate, deep-seated, lasting. At no time within a period that living men need concern themselves about will the Negro vote in any considerable numbers. This is the definite and final and deliberate action of the dominant Southern sentiment. Upon this basis these states are now beginning a new era of political experiment.

And many thoughtful men there hope for good results. They think that the Negro will soon come to take an active part in politics — the intelligent and thoughtful Negro, for the educated Negro who pays his taxes is not disbarred; and many men think that there will be a division of party opinion and a new era of political thought and activity.

But so far, the disfranchisement of the mass of blacks in South Carolina, in Mississippi, and in Louisiana (and there has been time enough in these states for results now to be apparent) has not brought such results. The Negro eliminated, only one political party remains, and political stagnation has followed. In Mississippi, the requirement that a poll tax be paid long before the election deprives many white men also of their votes. But it does not bar them out of nominating conventions. Many communities are ruled by a mere handful of whites who cannot even cast a ballot.

For instance, there are 320,000 males of voting age in Mississippi, but the whole vote cast in the state in November was only 59,000. This is 11,000 votes less than were cast four years ago under the same restrictions of suffrage. In other words, the whole state of Mississippi cast practically no more ballots to elect seven members of Congress than were cast in a single congressional district in New York. (The fourteenth New York district cast 58,000 votes.) In the town of Eudora, where a mayor, a marshal, a treasurer, and four aldermen were elected, only eight votes were cast, and of the eight voters seven are said to have been candidates for office.

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"The same men," says a trustworthy despatch from New Orleans, "were voters, candidates for office, and judges of election to pass as judges on their own votes as voters for themselves; and in spite of all their efforts they could get only one outsider to come to the polls and cast his ballot."

This is an extreme case; but in every state that has disfranchised the Negro (making a discrimination between him and the ignorant white man, in the white man's favor) political activity has constantly disappeared, the vote has shrunk, public spirit in politics has died. In Louisiana the total vote in November fell from 99,000 in 1896 to 61,000; of Mississippi, from 69,000 to 59,000; of South Carolina, from 68,000 to 50,000 — the shrinkage in four years in these three states being nearly 68,000 votes, in spite of the increase of population.

Such profound and increasing indifference of an electorate is a state of things never contemplated in the Republic. The proposal to reduce the South's representation in Congress may or may not now be carried out in the new apportionment; but these states can hardly hope that the elimination of a large part of the voters, and the neglect by the rest of the highest privilege of citizenship, will bring the South political power, respect, or honor. What a sorry showing it is of political spirit and intelligence alongside of the great advance in material prosperity there!

"Politics in Mississippi," said one of the most public-spirited and distinguished citizens of the state not long ago, — a man of distinction who has always been a Democrat, — "politics in Mississippi has sunk so low that irresponsible little bosses rule in every precinct, and a self-respecting citizen feels ashamed to take part in any contest; for all contests have become mere personal scrambles. As for the future, I cannot see a foot before me through the darkness."

THE FUTURE OF CUBA

GENERAL FITZHUGH LEE, in a public address at St. Louis on December 22, is reported to have said: —

"I was in Havana when the American flag was raised over Morro Castle. Now, my dear friends, I don't desire to give away any political secrets, but, gentlemen, between you and me, the flag is up there to stay and will never be pulled down."

The indiscretion of the remark is as indisputable as its truth is probable. It may not be true that Cuba will remain permanently a formal dependency; but it may become a part of the United States. Whatever happen, it is hard to see how the United States can at any given time entirely relinquish more or less substantial control. Events and geography will determine the outcome, whatever may be the wishes of this administration or of any other, or whatever may be the purpose, in all good faith expressed in the Senate resolution. Cuba is the military key to the Gulf and to the Isthmian canal. Cuba will never be free to permit other governments to obtain a dominant influence there, by purchase, by treaty, or by occupation. The future may bring almost any conceivable result except such absolute freedom as would imply these possibilities. Doubtless this is all that General Lee meant; and this is more than it became him as an officer in the army to say. But no student of international, or military, or even financial affairs is likely to reach any different conclusion.

The State Department has sent an answer to an inquiry by the German government (and thereby also to Great Britain and France) whether the United States would assume responsibility for losses incurred in Cuba by German subjects during the war. The United States has laid down the principle that the permanent government of Cuba must assume such responsibility, and that the United States government would not assume it unless Cuba should become a dependency of the United States.

The government could make no other answer. But the raising of such a question leads a long way. All the important European governments have many such claims to present. And these will discourage Cuban independence. Or suppose Cuba assumes them and could not pay them — shall foreign gunboats be permitted to go to Havana as foreign gunboats go to the chief seaports of other weak countries when strong governments present unwelcome claims? Moreover, American interests in the island are multiplying and extending. The final outcome is as

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interesting a political problem as the student of contemporaneous commercial and political forces could ask for study.

The constitutional convention is making rapid progress toward formulating a plan of government; and the island is receiving a large stream of Spanish immigration. Since the war about 50,000 Spaniards have gone there, and they are landed now at the rate of more than 3000 a month.

SUBJECTS OR CITIZENS?

SEVERAL cases are before the Supreme Court to test the constitutionality of the Porto Rican tariff. The question involved is whether the Constitution follows the flag — in other words, whether the laws of the United States apply also to our dependent islands. Can the United States government lawfully hold dependencies? The attorney-general presented a strong argument that our government has such a right under the Constitution, and able constitutional lawyers have presented the contrary argument.

It is difficult to see any very great practical difference, whatever the decision of the court. If it be unconstitutional to hold dependencies, and Porto Rico, Hawaii, and the Philippine Islands are integral parts of the United States, they must still be held as territories, and the problem of ruling them will not be essentially different. If the court sustains the government's contention that we may hold dependent territories and populations, of course the present status will continue.

The most important practical result of a decision by the Court which shall mean that Porto Rico and the Philippines are an integral part of the United States, if it should hand down such a decision, would be the abolition of import duties. If these islands are virtually territories of the United States, no duties can be levied on imports or exports between them and the United States. The great sugar and tobacco interests in particular would regret such a decision. But it is hard to see any very great practical effects other than these commercial ones.

Looking somewhat farther forward, such a decision would mean that these islands must be kept in a territorial status or be admitted as states; but there is no graver danger, perhaps, of their admission into statehood from the status of territories than from the status of dependencies.

The cases before the Supreme Court excite, after all, then, chiefly a theoretical interest. The anti-Imperialists who seem to fancy that the United States government has entered upon a career of foreign conquest and is likely to conquer and annex foreign lands in every possible part of the world, would be gratified by a decision that should discourage such a plan. But no such plan ever existed except in their imaginations. No decision of the Court can practically help us solve the vexing and wearisome problem of the Philippines. The unfortunate fact will still confront us, that our duty is to bring peace and order there.

Ex-President Harrison, who is one of the counsel against the government in one of the cases, delivered an address at Ann Arbor, Mich., on December 14, in which he expressed, with a degree of emotion uncommon to him, his opinion that we cannot hold dependencies. He said: —

> "There is no doubt that any international tribunal would affirm our title to the Philippines. The question which troubles us is their status. Are these people citizens or subjects, which?"

If our title be clear, we cannot rid ourselves of responsibility; and whether these people are citizens or subjects, they must submit to the United States government and keep the peace.

THE PRESIDENT'S CABINET IN HIS SECOND TERM

THE announcement that most of the members of the present excellent Cabinet of the President will remain with him during his next administration is significant for two reasons: It is one of the best working Cabinets that any recent President has had, and it shows a degree of public interest, self-sacrifice, and esteem for the President that is a good augury for his second term. It is understood by all who know public affairs intimately not only that the President may at any time call for the resignation of any of his secretaries, but that every member of the Cabinet is ready at any time to give his resignation if his presence or his policy causes the slightest embarrassment to the President. It was reported a little while

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ago, for instance, that Secretary Hay might resign because of the Senate's treatment of the Hay-Pauncefote treaty; and it is perfectly well known that, if the President at any moment desired Mr. Hay's resignation, — an event that is inconceivable, — Mr. Hay would give it. It is not the least of the evidences of Mr. McKinley's good working qualities that he binds such men to him with effective loyalty.

THE POPULAR VOTE FOR PRESIDENT

THE popular vote for President shows three interesting things: —

(1) Many men of each party abstained from voting, for the total was only 45,132 greater than in 1896, whereas the increase in population adds about a million to the electorate every four years. The total vote last year was 13,970,234. Mr. McKinley received only about 100,000 more than in 1896, and Mr. Bryan 130,000 less. Many men in each party, then, were dissatisfied with their candidate and platform.

(2) Mr. Bryan's largest gains were in New England, because of the anti-Imperialistic feeling, and in New York and New Jersey and Illinois, because of a milder fear of financial disturbance; and his losses were greatest in Utah, in Colorado, and in the Pacific States, an indication of better times and of less faith in free silver.

(3) Twelve Southern states cast a smaller vote than in 1896, partly because of the elimination of the Negroes, and partly because many Gold Democrats abstained from voting.

Neither party showed normal enthusiasm; but the commercial honesty and common sense of the masses decided the question put to them in a businesslike and effective way, and Mr. McKinley's plurality, in spite of losses in New England, New York, and Illinois, was the largest ever given to a presidential candidate.

AS MANY INDIANS AS EVER

THE census shows that the Indians are not becoming extinct under civilization. In fact, there is reason to think that there are now more in the United States than there were in the same area when the Pilgrims landed at Plymouth. In 1829 the Secretary of War estimated their number at 313,000. In 1850 the census gave a total of 401,000; in 1870, 313,371; and in 1900 the total is 331,000.

But if they have not been exterminated by civilization, the race is gradually being absorbed. Indians of the tribal organization and of pure descent are becoming fewer. There will be many an American citizen the next half century who will have straight black hair and a dark complexion; and ultimately these characteristics will be all that will be left of the copper-colored man. About twenty per cent of the Indians (more than 60,000) have abandoned tribal connections and government aid and are living as other men live. About 85,000 more are included in the five civilized tribes of Indian Territory, but the tribal life of these will soon end, and they will be thrown upon their own resources. A half-century of government rations and agency control has hurt rather than helped the Indian character. But those that have had inalienable land and have been forced to make their own way, have made a very respectable effort at intelligent self-support. Those that offered the most effective resistance to encroachment have made the best citizens afterwards. The so-called peaceful Indians who have never given the army trouble have shown the least ability to conduct their own affairs; and they yield most easily to absorption.

A RECORD OF THE WORLD'S TRADE

THE Treasury Department is preparing a colossal trade review, which will be called "The Abstract of the World." It will be an extension of the invaluable handbook that it has hitherto issued about the trade and progress of the United States, which is known as the "Statistical Abstract." This new volume will present a review of the world's trade not only of to-day, but over a long term of years. It will be a history of commerce in detail. The opening chapter, which has been completed, shows the total imports and exports of every country of the world that has a statistical record, from the earliest date of its record. From this volume the development of the world's trade can be studied with a completeness never hitherto possible to the layman.

For instance, the imports into the United Kingdom in 1800 were 81 million dollars; in

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1899, 2043 million dollars, an increase of 2400 per cent. The imports into the United States in 1800 were 52 million dollars, and in 1899, 685 million dollars, an increase of 1215 per cent. In exports the contrast is clearly in favor of the United States. The exports from the United Kingdom in 1800 were 111 million dollars, and in 1899, 1287 million dollars, an increase of 1059 per cent. The exports of the United States in 1800 were 32 million dollars, and in 1899, 1203 million dollars, an increase of 3681 per cent.

For the first time, the exports from the United States now exceed those from Great Britain. The growth of each for twenty-five years is very instructive: —

VALUE OF EXPORTS FROM THE UNITED STATES AND THE UNITED KINGDOM SINCE 1875

Year	United States	United Kingdom
1875	$497,863,737	$1,087,497,000
1876	575,735,804	976,410,000
1877	607,566,495	962,913,000
1878	733,986,821	938,500,000
1879	754,656,755	932,000,000
1880	875,564,075	1,085,521,000
1881	834,162,958	1,138,873,000
1882	749,911,309	1,175,099,000
1883	777,523,718	1,166,982,000
1884	733,708,764	1,114,016,000
1885	671,593,506	1,037,124,000
1886	699,519,430	1,035,226,000
1887	703,319,692	1,079,044,000
1888	679,597,477	1,141,365,000
1889	834,154,864	1,211,442,000
1890	845,999,603	1,283,474,000
1891	957,333,551	1,201,169,000
1892	921,137,315	1,105,747,000
1893	854,799,454	1,062,162,000
1894	807,312,716	1,051,193,000
1895	807,747,415	1,100,452,000
1896	986,830,080	1,168,671,000
1897	1,079,834,296	1,139,882,000
1898	1,233,564,818	1,135,642,000
1899	1,251,486,000	1,287,971,019
1900*	1,308,913,789	1,303,440,000

* Eleven months.

The United States has had, with much greater frequency than in any other country, an excess of exports over imports. In the United Kingdom, Germany, France, Belgium, Italy, the Netherlands, Sweden and Norway, and practically all European countries except Russia, Austro-Hungary, and Spain, the imports exceed the exports in some cases by large sums; and this is true also of China and Japan. In the newer and great producing countries, — Canada, Mexico, Argentine, Australia, and India, — the exports exceed the imports in nearly every case, though in sums which are insignificant when compared with the enormous balance in favor of the United States in recent years. Not one of the countries whose exports exceed their imports shows an excess approaching that enjoyed by the United States. In fact, the excess of exports in the entire group of sixteen countries having such excess gives a grand total of only 415 million dollars in the last reported year, as against an excess of 555 million dollars in favor of the United States alone in the fiscal year of 1900.

A POSTMASTER AT THE FARMER'S DOOR

THE experiments that have been made with a free mail delivery in rural regions are suggestive and interesting. Four years ago Congress was persuaded to make a small appropriation for this work, which has every year been increased. The last was $1,750,000. Nearly three thousand rural routes have been established, and almost two million farmers and their families now enjoy the benefits of the service. The rural carrier, who receives $500 a year, makes a daily trip of about twenty-five miles. His wagon is an itinerant postoffice. He delivers mail, he registers letters, he sells stamps, and he cancels postage on mail matter collected. It is proposed that he shall also issue money orders. The demand for routes is increasingly large. Applications from twenty-five hundred communities are in the hands of the postal authorities.

Postmaster-General Smith is convinced that the government must soon extend the service to cover practically the whole country. The rural population is estimated at twenty-four million people, three millions of whom, perhaps, live in such sparsely settled districts as to be practically inaccessible to carriers. The remaining twenty-one millions occupy a million square miles of territory. The gross cost of delivering the mails to them is estimated at $21,000,000 a year. The net cost would be considerably less; for many thousand fourth-class postoffices could be abolished, star routes superseded, and increased postal receipts on account of improved facilities would bring a large revenue. The Postmaster-General would have the loss now suffered on second-class matter stopped, and he calculates that this increase of net revenue would be sufficient to give free rural delivery to all accessible country folks. In his annual report, Mr. Smith says: —

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"The cost to the government of this abuse (of second-class mail matter) is almost exactly equivalent to the estimated cost of broad national rural free delivery; and if it is a question between favoring a very limited number of publishers and favoring twenty-one millions of people who live on the farms of the United States, there ought to be no hesitation in favoring the many rather than the few. The abuse should be uprooted as a public duty; the national delivery service should be undertaken as a public policy; and when, through the overthrow of the wrong, the right can be established without the slightest additional burden, the appeal becomes irresistible."

Almost every farmhouse in Great Britain and Belgium and France is reached by the postman. In other European countries there is rural delivery, but the carrier collects a fee. But nowhere is there a free system over such a wide area as the greater part of the United States. The subtle effects of the daily visits of the postman, or postmaster, would be far-reaching in rural life. As a piece of educational machinery, general free delivery would be of incalculable value.

DIVERGENT EGOTISMS

THE annual dinner of the New England Society is one of the few public dinners in New York, from one year's end to another, at which a serious word is spoken. This year Senator Beveridge, of Indiana, made a characteristic speech about the Puritan spirit and the new epoch in our national life. He was enthusiastic and eloquent, as his temper is. He did what every public speaker must do or fail — he stirred his audience. "The Puritan spirit is constructive," he said.

"The Puritan spirit never criticised except to propose something better. The word of immortality in Puritanism is the master word 'create.' Build, build, — this is the message of Puritanism to the American people in the new epoch of our national life. . . . The future of the world is in our hands. This is not enthusiasm; it is geography."

On the next afternoon one of the best daily papers in New York fell foul of Senator Beveridge's speech in this fashion:—

"It is neither enthusiasm nor geography. It is crowd language. It is the echo of the lower harmony, that vulgar confluence of egotisms by which we tell the crowd, whether it is washed or unwashed, at a New England dinner or at an Australian korroboree."

"Crowd language?" Isn't all oratory crowd language? Judged by these two specimens, which has suffered the greater decline, oratory or criticism? And which of these stirred men more? Or is it vulgar and inharmonious to be stirred? Forced to choose between the orator and the critic, most men of normal emotions would prefer the orator. And by the time their "vulgar confluence of egotisms" runs to the silent sea, the orator's part of the stream will carry a richer freight of fruitful experience and human gratitude. Meanwhile, too, he will have more fun in his flowing.

A RADICAL PLAN OF MUNICIPAL REFORM

THE great disinfectant that keeps a democracy wholesome is publicity; and publicity is more than a disinfectant — it is the best and often the only weapon to fight established evils with. The committee of citizens in New York, who propose to restore the city to decency, have hit upon the right plan — to find out definite facts about the encouragement of vice by public officers, and then to publish these facts. This programme alone would cleanse the city morally as a strong wind blows away a fog.

But the source of corrupt municipal government will never be permanently removed until rich men and managers of great commercial and financial interests find a way to resist blackmail. They now — nearly all — contribute to campaign funds, many to the funds of the bosses of both parties, and not a few pay money to prevent legislation that is proposed on purpose to secure blackmail.

There will be municipal misrule — organized oppression, in fact — until the fundamental cause of it is removed. If a vigilance committee, in addition to closing dives and stopping the petty levy made on unfortunate women and the keepers of gambling houses, could stop the great source of supply of corruption, we should have a new day in municipal rule. What if men who control great interests and manage great corporations were to agree, and publish their agreement, that they will never contribute out of their trust funds to any campaign committee and would never pay peace money? The powers that prey would then die of starvation. There is no complete reform short of such radical action.

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CECIL RHODES

THE CAREER OF THE MOST ACTIVE MAN IN THE WORLD — HIS DREAM OF AN ALL-BRITISH AFRICA, AND HIS DEVELOPMENT OF WHAT THE ENGLISH SECURED — THE GIGANTIC SCALE OF HIS PLANS — HIS PERSONAL TRAITS

BY

EWART SCOTT GROGAN

SOME years ago, an Oxford undergraduate affected by lung-disease went to South Africa to prolong his life for a few years. In that undergraduate were certain elements of character — tenacity of purpose — ballast — intellect — above all, imagination. To these the space of African life added largeness and the sense of proportion, which is perhaps the rarest of all. In the midst of his work at Kimberley, he returned to England to finish his terms at Oxford. When Gordon said that he had refused a room full of gold, "I would have taken it," said Rhodes, "and as many more rooms full as they would give me. It is of no use to have big ideas if you have not the cash to carry them out." Great projects had already begun to fill his mind. Thus, in 1888, we have no longer the delicate undergraduate, but the man who amalgamated the Kimberley mines and made De Beers. The elements had fused. Tenacity of purpose, ballast, intellect, and proportionate imagination had become Cecil Rhodes.

The De Beers diamond mines became a stepping-stone to greater things. North and west of Kimberley and of the Transvaal lay the Hinterland, and already other hands were stretching toward the rich prize. Krueger had foreseen that if he were not to be cut off forever from expansion he must strike north to save the Zambesi waterway. The Germans, too, had foreseen that that Hinterland was the key to supremacy. Whoever held the great fertile and mineralized tracts of the Matabeleland highlands could strangle South Africa. In Damaraland they already had a vantage point from which to bar British expansion. Influenced by them, Krueger organized a great trek northwards.

The fate of South Africa hung by a thread. British supremacy in the Dark Continent was sinking to the rumble of the wagon wheels. But the ponderous mass of the British Empire was asleep, with no dream of what hung in the dust of a Dutchman's trek.

Thus Cecil Rhodes did a work which will receive its true valuation centuries hence, when the perspective of Time has told its tale. When a new America is pumping out riches to all the world, when capital is pouring in to Lobengula's hunting grounds and filtering out again through a strange wealth of products, when the Anglo-Saxon stands before the world steward for all milder breeds and has achieved the full measure of his destiny, then shall we see this man's full influence in the world.

Imperial expansion on coöperative lines, local federation leading eventually to Imperial Federation, which may again lead to Anglo-Saxon Commercial Federation with perhaps a commercial capital in New York and an intellectual capital in London, — these are the lines of his thought. He is willing them, and they are becoming. Berlin and Birmingham have both served him. The born Emperor and the self-made dominant statesman, he has used them both as he used De Beers. But what may a man not do, who can make a fortune of millions to *assist* him in his designs — a man who can look upon that fortune as a stone-cutter looks upon his chisel?

When the British South African Chartered Company came into being, but few guessed wherefore. A handful of white men, starving, cursing, dying, marched through a miasmic death-sheet of tropical rains. Then one day

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the Empire woke to find that Jameson with maxims was sitting on the north bank of the Limpopo. The Boer trek was on the south bank, and Boer and German hopes of South African supremacy were as the clouds of dust that hung behind their retreating wagons. Cecil Rhodes had prevailed. Despite the incubus of governmental inertia, he had, single-handed, beaten Krueger and Berlin.

Thus made secure of his base, and freed from the bogey of Boer treks, he turned to Matabeleland. From that time the stream of British influence flowed northward as through an open sluice. Bechuanaland was secured, the first Matabele war fought; the boundary was pushed to the Zambesi. But this was not enough. As the horizon widened, a larger ambition rose into view. Cecil Rhodes threw his influence into the scale in Nyassaland, and backed the African Lakes Corporation with his thousands. British Central Africa was the result. Thereby the Portuguese were cut off from the interior, and northern Rhodesia fell into his lap. Cecil Rhodes had found himself. He was the incarnation of Cape to Cairo, for the British and for the world.

Thus in an incredibly brief time Rhodes's hand was on the southern shore of Tanganyika, 2200 miles from Cape Town. A tract of country five times the size of the British Isles, and that perhaps the most fertile, the most healthy, the best-watered, and the wealthiest part of Africa (except Abyssinia), was added to the British Empire by the will of one man, without authority, and in the very teeth of the government's opposition.

On touching Tanganyika even Rhodes's will failed. The inert government in some spasm of its slumber had hurled away the central band of Africa. Whole lakes and tracts of fertile soil, forests of incalculable value seamed with life-giving rivers that open access to the coast, ranges of coffee-bearing hills, had been handed over to those who asked. The Congo fell into other hands. Lakes, mountains, rivers, that knew none but the Britisher, many that carry British names, have gone to the foreigner. In vain Sir Henry Stanley urged the wealth of the Congo basin, in vain Rhodes silently proved the practicability of African expansion. The great inert government was in generous mood, and Rhodes was as helpless as a speculator obliged to blast through a mountain before telegraphing his broker to sell on a falling market.

It is a sad picture. Some immaculate official dozing through a conference, profoundly ignorant of all things African, viewing countries and imperial interests through his eyeglass with the same amused contempt as he would were they bloaters — desperately conscientious, circumloquaciously orthodox, politely screening his yawns, then driving to his dinner in smug content, little dreaming that he had signed away the head of a comet. Rhodes's dream was dwarfed, but not wholly destroyed. A British Africa had vanished at the splutter of a quill. There still remained the substance of African occupation. If he could not have a British Africa to develop at his leisure, he would have Africa's wealth and its trade by feverish endeavor. Thus was born the plan of the Cape-to-Cairo railroad and telegraph. He willed them, and they shall be. It has been said of Mr. Rhodes that he thinks in continents, a fact that makes him incomprehensible to many Englishmen. Americans should understand him more easily. The vast mass of business concentrated in London distorts the British sense of proportion. Hence, to many, Rhodes is still the wild, dangerous dreamer that he was pictured in the past.

For a while he devoted himself to the development of Rhodesia, but at the same time kept a guiding hand on the reins of Cape politics. Steadily he was inducing the conflicting elements of Dutch and British to pull in harmony toward South African Federation, or, as he himself expressed it, "equal rights for all white men south of the Zambesi." He had the confidence of the Dutch. It was his boast that he would in time draw away all Krueger's burghers to his own great land. One thousand of them were his already. Then fell a bolt from the blue — the Jameson raid. When shall we know the true history of that desperate stroke? On the face of it, it could not succeed. The column was not even provided with guides. An infant might have known that the whole thing would fizzle. Rhodes has made no other mistake. Could he have been responsible for such a childish folly as this?

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Yet it has succeeded. South Africa is British to-day, and the last thorn of insecurity has been plucked from its side. I have given the incident much thought, and have talked with most of the movers in it, big and small, and I believe that the raid was a desperate stroke to force the British government to act before it was too late.

It was not the native Boers, but the foreign Hollander element, that threatened danger. The growing wealth of the Transvaal had drawn this element down upon it like a vampire which, with Krueger at its head, was sucking its very life-blood. I am in some respects a pro-Boer as Mr. Rhodes is a pro-Boer, and in fighting the régime of Krueger we have been fighting for the Boers as much as for ourselves. It is again Mr. Rhodes's cry of equal rights for all white men.

The Transvaal is proportionately the wealthiest country in the world. Its revenues amounted to several millions of pounds sterling. Out of those millions a very few buildings have been put up and a few Long Toms have been purchased. There was no navy and no standing army to support. Yet when more money was needed it was impossible to place a loan in any market. Why? and where have those millions of revenue gone? Krueger was a small farmer; as a small farmer he became president; last year he owned (say) £6,000,000; his salary was, I believe, £10,000: had he saved every penny, he would have needed five hundred years to save that sum. He was but one of many vampires.

With Krueger at its head the Hollander element began to arm *before* the Jameson raid; they were bleeding the country for their own pockets and poisoning the mind of the illiterate Dopper. Thus in their wild conceit they aimed at eventually driving British supremacy into the sea. How well they had schemed has been shown in the war. Had they had a little more dash they would have succeeded. Only the strategic errors of the investment of Mafeking, Kimberley, and Ladysmith saved us.

This was what Rhodes faced; and still the great inert government slumbered. Then the raid burst like a shell. A strong policy in 1896 might have settled the question for war; and the blood and misery of thousands would not bear awful testimony to the unctuous rectitude of governmental inertia. But eventually the raid succeeded. British supremacy is now assured south of Tanganyika. It was Rhodes who conceived the idea, gave it shape and substance, fed it, and by his sole force has brought it to fruition. What might not have happened had he but had a free hand?

And yet there are millions who attribute the origin of the war to Rhodes. The war was of the Hollander clique's making. Rhodes foresaw it and made an opening before it was too late.

It was then that his true character stood revealed to the world. Execrated by civilized humanity, stripped of all his official positions, he was still Cecil Rhodes, the one dominant force in South Africa, the man who willed things and they were so. It is this in him that makes his immeasurable preëminence. Strip Mr. Chamberlain of his official state, and what have we? Chamberlain has himself said that his whole career turned on an election. Yet Rhodes never swayed to that world-wide storm-blast. Official distinctions were no more to him than Edelweiss to the Matterhorn. He stands alone, untrammelled by tradition or social obligations; he has no need for the smirk of respectability. He and one other (a soldier) are the only two living Englishmen who are impervious to what the world says.

He never condescends to explain his reasons. He states broadly and forcibly his policy and then acts. Maybe he refers lightly to what he has accomplished. No man has suffered more from misconception and imperfect reporting, yet he never raises his voice in protest. Strong in his conviction that he is always right and every one else is wrong (as Gordon once expressed it), he drives straight ahead, secure in the knowledge that events and history will be his justification. Once only did he raise his voice in protest — in the South African Enquiry Committee, convened after the raid, when Labouchere led the attack of his enemies. His words then were "unctuous rectitude." They bit deep, and have lived.

It has been charged against Rhodes that he was playing for his own hand, and desired to discard the flag at the first favorable opportunity. A careful perusal of the recently pub-

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lished volume of his sketches will show that he has consistently laid stress on his loyalty to the flag. "I know myself," he said at Kimberley, in 1890, "I am not prepared at any time to forfeit my flag. . . . If I forfeit my flag, what have I left? If you take away my flag, you take away everything." Sound Imperialism has dominated all his actions. At a very early stage in his career he expressed his desire to see all Africa British.

Another charge often made is that he is a mere speculator, wrapped up in the pursuit of money. It has been said that he manœuvred the raid, and even the Boer War, for financial purposes, to pile up more millions. This is as wild and baseless as the recent charges brought against Chamberlain. He is playing for the greatest stake of all, a prominent niche in the Hall of Fame. What are a few millions more or less to such as he? He has no extravagant tastes, no race-horses, no floating palaces. A mere tithe of the rents from one of his numberless ventures would pay for his simple needs. Money is to him but a means of forcing the hand of Time, "that terrible Time," as he phrases it. Much has yet to be done before Cecil Rhodes has played his giant part. Would he risk all for a mere cipher in his bank-book? Now that the cold hand of the government has spoiled that glorious dream of an all-British Africa, he has turned the whole force of his personality upon the commercial development of the vast tract which he has saved for all time to the Anglo-Saxon. Let us glance at two contrasting pictures.

Ten years ago in Buluwayo: Far as the eye can reach stretches the monotonous bush-veldt, broken only to the north by the long low crest of Thabasinduna. Lines of drooping oxen wend from the rocky stream, guided by whooping, wire-drawn Matabele, who beat upon their black and white ox-hide shields with their kerries, to the deep-growling cadence that accompanies all their work. Native girls are moving to and from the stream, each with a jar of water on her head. The sun is drooping behind the land of the great weird salt-pans, the home of the giraffe and gemsbok.

The great straggling clusters of rude bee-hive huts loom indistinct through the gray smoke pillars of a thousand fires, over which a thousand pots are singing. The casual passer-by would smile and say, "Here is a spot wrapped in the slumber of peace." Little would he guess the tales of blood that are being told by those who squat round the red core of each smoke pillar.

A low murmuring chant is heard in some distant corner: let us investigate.

A hundred or more warriors are droning out a chorus, looking like fiends from hell as their eyeballs gleam with suppressed excitement from beneath the shade of vast black ostrich-feather head-dresses. Their feet, bristling with anklets of stiff hair, stamp the ground in unison. Lobengula squats among them, quaffing deep draughts of millet-beer.

Suddenly a wild hag with weird motion of her skinny arms whirls from the dusk, gyrates with gleaming eyes and long yellow fangs, in and out, here and there, moaning and wailing, faster, ever faster, till with a shriek she lunges at some quaking brave. *He has been smelt out.* The assegais do their well-known work. The hyenas and jackals yap and laugh in the fulness of their content. One more black soul has gone to swell the great gibbering throng that calls out to God in protest.

In another quarter a thousand long, strapping youths are decking themselves in their war-paint, sharpening their spears and axes, and measuring out charges for their strange assortment of guns. They are *seeing red.* To-morrow they will be on the war-path. More peaceful Mashona villages will be engulfed under that relentless, red-seeing black wave.

Again, ten years ago, one thousand miles further north: Sweep upon sweep of timbered uplands roll away till they are lost in the blue haze of the hills that encircle Tanganyika. Strange cries, strange oaths, and ominous cracks startle the leopard from his cave, and make the troops of monkeys scamper in wild tumult along the branches. A stately Arab clad in flowing kanza of silk with bejewelled cimeter at his belt rides into the sunlit glade. Let the woods hide that hell of misery! The terror-stricken natives flee like uneasy shades into the deepest recesses of the forest, nor venture to emerge for days. Sheikh bin Said is taking ivory to the coast.

Ten years have flitted by.

Buluwayo of to-day: —

"Buluwayo!" "Buluwayo!" "Here y'ar, sah!" "Here y'ar, sah!" "Cab, sah!" "Cab,

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sah!" "Buluwayo *Times!*" "Buluwayo *Times!*"—such are the cries that greet the ears of the passengers by the Cape Town express as it steams into the site of old Lobengula's blood-orgies, thirteen hundred and sixty miles from Cape Town. Past the broad-verandaed hospital with its waving avenues of blue gums, past streets of brick-built shops, past great hotels, the club with its busy hum of thirst-quenchers, past the substantial stone post-office and stock exchange, glancing at the distant waterworks, the traveller is driven up to the step of some comfortable suburban villa. Theatres, concerts, dances, sing-songs, will enliven his evening. In the morning he may breakfast off fresh sea-fish or fresh imported pheasant. His news is only two hours later than London news. Roads radiate in every direction with regular postal service to the outlying settlements and mines. Two railways have been already started north, one to link Buluwayo with Gwelo and Salisbury, which is already connected with its seaport Beira by a railway that is perhaps one of the most monumental examples of the Anglo-Saxon contempt for obstacles. The other launches out into the great endless north, carrying the shrivelled relic of Rhodes's dream on the long, long track to Cairo. Model farms, experimental farms, nurseries, stock-farms, and numerous other experimental depots are scattered through the country. Game laws have been introduced and are enforced.

Through swamps and raging torrents, through forest and jungle, by lakes and waterless deserts, over hill and dale, the telegraph has forged ahead till now it stands on the very shores of Tanganyika. No longer the crack of whips rings through the woods, no longer the shriek of suffering humanity startles the leopard in his cave. The hand of Rhodes is upon the country. No sounds but the careless laughter of the natives and the ceaseless click-click of civilization's nerves break the stillness of those far-away wilds.

Such is the work and such the picture of Cecil Rhodes the Colossus.

Let us take a glimpse at Mr. Rhodes the man. His massive head and calm impression of relentless power strike home at the first glance. It is a fascinating figure, this modern type of Napoleon, wandering about his great empire like any proprietor, revelling in the free careless life of the veldt. He is a keen sportsman. There is something weird in the idea of the man chasing guinea fowl with all the enthusiasm of youth, while empires, finance, railway schemes beyond belief, chase one another across his brain. He drops into London for a week; reporters dance and skip in vain. One morning he is gone, thousands applaud his rare speeches, rugged and forcible as the man himself.

Abstractedly morose or carelessly gay, the cold gleam of cynicism inseparable from real greatness lurks in his manners. His magnetic power is wonderful. Men will work till they drop at his bidding; with him at the helm there is no failing. His is indeed a kingdom.

A little incident will best illustrate this. When the telegraph line was building, the man who had been chosen to superintend a part of the work went to see Mr. Rhodes in his office in Cape Town.

Mr. Rhodes at table. "Hullo, So and So. Let me see; ah! yes, telegraph: help yourself to a drink."

He got up, walked to one of those old maps of Africa which was hanging on the wall, dotted here and there with "gold," "elephants," "desert," etc.; he took a ruler in his hand, measured off a distance, then turned and said:—

"Yes! let me see; four hundred miles. To-day is January 5th—August 25th, please; that will suit, I think,—good morning."

The wretched individual staggered out, faced by an obvious impossibility. No questions had been asked as to the difficulties to be overcome; no possibility of failure had been considered. "August 25th, please." God knows how!

Toil night and day for seven months and a half, with no stop for fever; and on August 25th the work was complete. That man has now a career. Had it been August 26th, he would have dropped back into the gulf with slimy sides.

Among common men Cecil Rhodes stands forth like a rugged mountain rising from a plain. The same calm, unbending dignity, the same incomprehensible preëminence, characterize them both.

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A DAY'S WORK OF A NATURALIST

AN INTERESTING ASCENT OF MOUNT ORIZABA IN MEXICO—WONDERFUL CLOUD EFFECTS—LIFE AT VARIOUS ELEVATIONS—A VIEW OF THE CRATER

BY

EDWARD WILLIAM NELSON

FIELD NATURALIST OF THE UNITED STATES BIOLOGICAL SURVEY

FOR several months, while collecting specimens and studying the distribution of animal and plant life on the plains of Puebla and the high mountains bordering the valley of Mexico, my eastern horizon was banked high with rolling clouds where the humid air from the hot coast country came pouring up over the rim of the table-land. Now and then an opposing air current brushed aside the clouds and revealed the dazzling white cone of Mount Orizaba, looming high against the sky, a marvellously beautiful and inspiring vision. These fleeting views excited a constantly increasing desire to know this noble mountain more intimately and to learn something of the life that dwelt on its sides.

Mount Orizaba, or Citlaltepetl,—the Star Mountain,—as the Aztecs called it on account of its far-gleaming summit, is an extinct volcano 18,314 feet high, and it ranked as the highest peak in North America until recent discoveries transferred that honor to Mount McKinley in Alaska. Owing to its situation it is one of the most striking mountains of the world. No rivalling peak is near to detract from its majesty, and although it is within the tropics, its summit is capped with perpetual snow. The western base rests on the high table-land of Puebla at an altitude of eighty-four hundred feet, but the eastern side presents a gigantic sweep from icy summit, high above the uttermost limits of all life, down through forests of pines and firs, arbutus and oaks, tree ferns, sweet gums, and sycamores, to the coffee, bananas, and palms of the tropics, and ends on the coast plains of Vera Cruz.

After finishing our preliminary work about Chalchicomula, Mr. Goldman, my assistant, and I prepared to make a reconnaissance of the mountain, and if possible to reach its summit. A field naturalist, working in remote regions, must carry so large a working outfit that it sometimes becomes embarrassing. This proved to be so when we tried to find pack animals to carry our impedimenta up the mountain. At length a couple of horses were hired for our own use, and three donkeys for the baggage. These small beasts did the work admirably, although when our specimen chests, bed rolls, bags of traps, provisions, and other articles were lashed on their backs they seemed incapable of ever reaching their destination. We were accompanied by three Indians, who knew the mountain well, and served as guides, donkey drivers, and camp men. We decided to go directly to a cave, located near the timber-line on the south side of the peak, where water, grass, and firewood were convenient, and whence the summit was most easily accessible.

One of us carried a rifle, the other a shotgun, slung to the saddle, in order to be ready for any game. The treeless plains were soon left behind, and the cart road became among the pines only a winding trail deep-worn by the sandalled feet of countless generations of Indians.

We were now in new ground on the forested slope of the mountain, and eyes and ears, long trained in such work, were keenly alert to detect every woodland sound or movement that would betray the presence of bird or beast. At the same time the most characteristic forms of plant life were noted, and it soon became evident that there were two and possibly three species of pines on the lower slopes of the mountain. At first, the forest was open, the trees rather scrubby, and the arid, barren soil showed few traces of animal life.

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PLAINS OF PUEBLA.
Hacienda in foreground and Mount Malinche in background.

A little farther up we passed a number of nearly nude, sullen-faced Indians, hard at work with wooden bars prying out the wiry roots of a coarse grass which grows abundantly here. These roots are cleaned and shipped in bales to the United States, where they are used for making scrubbing-brushes. Hundreds of Indians on the mountains about the southern end of the Mexican table-land make a miserable living by this work. Their coarse features and rude appearance contrast strongly with the much more refined and attractive Indians we afterwards found living under easier natural conditions in the hot country far down the eastern slope.

As we advanced the trees became larger and the grass and scrubby undergrowth more abundant, showing that we were entering a more humid zone. The general appearance of our surroundings vividly recalled parts of the southern Rocky Mountains in New Mexico and Arizona. The pines were interspersed with trees a foot or two in diameter which at a distance appeared like oaks, but on closer inspection proved to be tree alders with curiously thick, spongy bark. Strangely twisted and contorted arbutus trees, like the madroños of California, with smooth yellow or russet bark, were the most picturesque feature of the forest. In addition, there was a constant succession of plants belonging to genera more or less common in much more northern regions. Among these were lupines, dogwood, ceanothus, viburnum, wild gooseberries, wild cherries, strawberries, and small willows. In order to look carefully for birds in the trees and for mammals on the ground, I rode, as customarily, some distance ahead of the party. Looking back from time to time, I caught glimpses of the little pack train winding among the trees down the slope; and out over the tree-tops had a magnificent view of the plains of Puebla, dotted with volcanic cones and crossed here and there with the slowly moving forms of towering dust columns.

At about 10,500 feet above the sea, we found the highest cultivated land in Mexico, a small potato field guarded on one side by a couple of grass-thatched Indian huts.



CASCADE ON RIO BLANCO
below the city of Orizaba.

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A YOUNG INDIAN.

Many birds were congregated about this clearing, and here we first heard the exquisitely melodious song of the rare ocellated thrasher. Robins, bluebirds, nuthatches, juncos, and chipping sparrows were all about, and the constant warbling of vireos from the tree-tops combined to render the place a charming spot for a camp. We found the hut occupied by a young Indian and his family who, at a later date, gave us hospitable shelter, and we worked here several days, subsisting with our hosts on potatoes baked in the ashes, part of the time without even salt to give them flavor.



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AN INDIAN WOMAN

of the hot eastern country, where the people are noted for handsomely woven and richly embroidered clothing.



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AN INDIAN TYPE.

We had no time to spare here now, and urged the Indians to hurry the donkeys along as rapidly as possible, for the sun was on its downward course and we were still far from the cave. A short distance above the potato field the trees were the largest seen on the west side of the mountain, and some of the firs were very handsome. The pines found along the lower slopes had given place to other kinds, one of which ranges up to form the sole species at timber-line. At 12,500 feet the trail enters the lower end of a narrow rocky pass, which quickly opens into a small, characteristic glacial basin with a curving

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MOUNT ORIZABA
from the foothills near Chalchicomula — about twelve miles.

slope above, showing where the ice came down from the side of the peak. At the lower end is a small terminal moraine, with large boulders on its back. This was the lowest point at which glacial action was noted on Orizaba. We were now skirting the timber-line on gentle, undulating slopes. The only tree found here is a hardy dwarfed pine (*Pinus hartwegi*) which, on exposed situations, is much contorted, and leans away from the direction whence blow the prevailing winds. The soil is made up of loose volcanic scoriæ and disintegrated lava overgrown with scattered bunches of grass intermingled with a few drabas, lupines, eryngiums, and thistles. Close on the left lay a great bed of lava that once flowed down the southwest side of the peak and stopped abruptly, forming an almost sheer front about two hundred feet high. The talus against the base of this massive bluff was strewn with large boulders and scattered patches of low juniper bushes. The afternoon sun was warm, and we made a short stop here to secure some of the small



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INDIAN TYPES FROM THE FOOTHILLS.

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dark-colored lizards that were basking on the rocks and to look about for signs of other animals which frequently make their homes in such places. While here we saw a marsh hawk sailing along the face of the bluff, and the bare sandy spots at our feet were marked by the tracks of rabbits, mice, and coyotes. Most of the smaller mammals are nocturnal in habits, so that their presence can be detected only by the closest observation for signs in places they are likely to frequent. Within the last fifteen years, the use of improved traps and special methods of observation have revealed a remarkable and previously unsuspected variety and abundance of small mammals even in what were considered some of the best-known parts of the United States. As a matter of course, the less-known parts of the world yield many previously unknown animals of great novelty and interest, so that whenever we enter new territory we are always on the alert for every indication that may bring a closer acquaintance with the small beasts of field and forest. The rabbit and various other mammals taken during this visit to Mount Orizaba proved to be new to science, and some were of peculiar interest.

Following the timber-line for about an hour, we came to the head of a rocky cañon with a trickling stream in its bed. This is the only water on the south side of the peak, as elsewhere it sinks at once into the loose soil. Close by the water in one side of the cañon wall is the small cave or rock shelter known as the *Cueva de los Muertos* on account of the massacre of a party here by bandits. We found the floor of the cave largely made up of whitish scoriæ mixed with fine fragments of sulphur, which had been brought down from the crater by the sulphur gatherers many years ago. Camp was quickly made, and while the men were hobbling the animals and gathering wood for the camp-fire, Mr. Goldman was busily at work setting traps among the grass and rocks in the vicinity. Meanwhile my own time was fully occupied until dark preparing and labelling the birds



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SOUTH SIDE OF THE PEAK.

Looking up glacial valley from the timber line.

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and plants collected during the trip up the mountain.

Our camp was at an altitude of thirteen thousand feet, and at sunset the warm upward current of air that blew all day changed abruptly to a chilling breeze coming down from the snow fields. After our rude meal of corn cakes, meat, and tea the Indians wrapped their serapes about them and smoked corn-husk cigarettes while they talked entertainingly of former experiences on the mountain. One old fellow, during the French intervention, had been a smuggler of ammunition and other contraband of war from the towns of the lowlands to the revolutionists on the table-land. He told dramatically how bands of strong young fellows with packs on their backs and gun in hand crept up at night, over the long ten or twelve thousand feet from the hot country, through the cañon where we were camped, and thence down to the table-land. If caught on these expeditions, their lives were forfeited, so they were always prepared to fight desperately if surprised. They told, too, of the work of the sulphur gatherers who camped here and climbed the peak with lanterns at night in order to gather the sulphur and return by day. The impure sulphur was put in sacks, and if the big peak was coated with snow, the sack was placed on a heavy palm mat, on which the man then mounted and made a dashing glissade of over three thousand feet to the base of the peak.



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CONTORTED PINE TREES
on the timber-line, showing effect of prevailing winds.

Before rolling up in our blankets, we prepared for an early start to climb the peak in the morning and ascertain the upper limits of animal and plant life on its slope. During the night I awoke with a violent headache, throbbing pulse, and difficult respiration. This was my first experience with mountain sickness and was quite unexpected, for I had camped at an equally high altitude on Mount Iztaccihuatl without experiencing anything of the kind. It proved to be sufficiently unpleasant, and I could lie only on my back, now and then gasping for breath much like a fish out of water. It was a relief when two o'clock came and I could arouse the men for the start.

Shoes were discarded for the foot-gear commonly used by the natives in climbing the high peaks of Mexico. Our feet were wrapped in sacking, over which were lashed a pair of leather sandals, and around the middle of the foot three turns were taken with a small hard rope, which prevents slipping when walking in loose material. It was four o'clock when we picked our way cautiously out from the glare of the camp-fire into the intense darkness, and, mounting our horses on the further side of the cañon, we rode silently up through the last dwarfed pines toward the foot of the peak. Overhead the stars were visible in marvellous profusion in the clear air. It was calm when we started, but a breeze straight from the snow fields soon met us and made the frosty air uncomfortably sharp.



AN INDIAN HUT.

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SOUTH SIDE OF THE PEAK.
Drift boulders in the foreground.

The first sign of dawn was a pale gray tinge in the east; then the peak came out of its enshrouding darkness, looking a cold, repellent white. Shortly after, the figures of the Indians became distinct, and scattering bunches of yellow grass began to take form mysteriously on the blank expanse over which we were moving. Then the gray east threw its pale light over all, until the treeless, rock-strewn landscape presented the same ghastly, lifeless appearance I have seen so often on Arctic tundras. When we reached the lowermost snow banks the stars had disappeared, except a few low on the western horizon; but the plains of Puebla, lying west of the mountain and seven thousand feet below, were hidden by such dense blackness it seemed as though all the shades of night had gathered there.

Looking back along the route we had come, it was evident that it lay through a long valley, once the bed of a large glacier, extending from the base of the peak to timber-line. Later examination showed great blocks of lava scattered over its surface, and the polished and striated lava bed on one side gave unmistakable evidence of former ice action on a considerable scale. At fifteen thousand feet we dismounted by a large glacial boulder and sent the horses back to camp by one of the men, while we tightened our foot-gear preparatory to the real work of the ascent. A warm glow of color from the rising sun tipped the peak just as we started, and at the same time a junco uttered its simple song again and again from the top of a bare mass of lava close by. I listened for several minutes with delighted surprise to hear this little bird singing so cheerily amid these bleak and desolate surroundings — greeting the sun rapturously, as though his small body contained the spirit of some old Aztec sun-priest.

Most of the flowering plants were left before we dismounted, and only a few tufts of grass extended up to 15,400 feet, beyond which a few lichens occurred up to 16,000 feet, where vegetation absolutely ceased. We were surprised to find the tracks of several white-footed mice in the barren sand over a hundred feet above the last grass blade. It was difficult to surmise what attracted these small beasts to this elevation, unless it was to make a record, for this is the highest point at which any mammal has been found in North America. After crossing a broad belt of loose sand, we came to a narrow ridge of broken lava which reached nearly to the summit. To the left lay a precipitous slope of ice, descending several thousand feet, and on the right a steep slope of loose sand down which we came later in the day. The main difficulty of the ascent was due to the shortness of breath resulting from severe exertion at this altitude. We slowly advanced up the long slope of broken rock,



RIDGE OF BROKEN LAVA
up which the ascent was made.

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and I found it necessary to stop for breath every twenty or thirty yards; so my companions, who were in better condition, were soon some distance in advance.

One of the most interesting features of the ascent was noted soon after we passed above the uppermost limit of life at sixteen thousand feet. Up to this time the view had been disappointing from the apparent haziness of the air, but now we passed out into a clear, pure atmosphere, overarched by a sky of brilliant indigo blue. The dusty stratum of air below appeared to have a definite upper surface, stretching away to the west as far as the eye could reach, and having the appearance of a semi-opaque, yellowish brown sea. Far away on the western horizon two sharply outlined islands arose, glittering white above this curious sea; they were the snowy summits of the volcanoes of Popocatepetl and Iztaccihuatl, whose basal slopes sixteen thousand feet below were completely hidden. Nearer at hand cumulus clouds were scattered here and there, half submerged in the lower air. It was exhilarating to climb into this clear upper atmosphere, where we seemed to have left the earth behind and could readily fancy ourselves in some new world. Within a few hundred feet of the summit the rocky slope up which we toiled disappeared beneath the belt of snow and ice that encircles the top of the mountain. Here we were forced to turn aside to avoid an impracticable rocky spur, and the ascent became more abrupt on all sides. The sun had deeply honeycombed this icy surface, so we were saved the trouble of cutting steps, although it became necessary to rely on our alpenstocks to avoid ugly falls among the smooth icy spurs and depressions. For some time ragged clouds had been drifting along the uppermost pines toward the peak, on rising air currents. Now they came swirling up the mountain and overtook us, borne by a fierce wind.

During all the ascent my headache had been severe, but as a result of this wind it was greatly intensified and accompanied by nausea and almost complete lack of muscular



EASTERN WALL OF THE CRATER.
The projection — over 100 feet high — is called "the pulpit" by the Indians.

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energy. From here to the summit my progress was very slow, as I found it necessary to pause and rest every third or fourth step and was forced to lean heavily on the alpenstock to avoid falling from sheer weakness. Finally I reached the border of the crater and lay prone on a mass of loose gravelly material just within the rim until the effects of the final efforts had worn off. The entire crater was within view and presented a wild scene of rugged desolation.

Planted in the ice on the extreme summit stood a cross, nineteen feet high, made of gas pipe brought up piece by piece and put together by religious enthusiasts from Chalchicomula.

The wind continued to increase in violence until great caution was necessary while walking along the rim to avoid being blown in. The hot country to the east was blotted out by a great sea of clouds, and to the west dense dusty-smelling clouds were constantly forming near the mountain, sweeping in over the crest and down into the black depths of the crater. There they were whirled around and around in wildly contorted shapes, torn into shreds, cast over the farther wall and driven away in ragged fragments, making a wild and angry scene of fascinating interest.

After resting more than an hour on the summit, during which a set of photographs was taken, we started down the mountain. The belt of ice was soon passed, and we came to the bare slope of loose ashes and gravelly material which extends to the foot of the peak, parallel to the rocky ridge up which we made the ascent. This fine material was so loose that we sank ankle deep at each step, and it lies at so steep an angle that a large stone set rolling descended with constantly accelerated speed till it disappeared several thousand feet below.

When we were about a thousand feet below the summit the wind fell suddenly, the clouds dissolved, and out over the plains of Puebla a wonderful transformation took place.

For hours many cumulus clouds had remained stationary as though floating on the upper surface of the dusty stratum at sixteen thousand feet. Now with the calm in the upper air the heated currents from the plains below appeared to rise, carrying up the clouds in enormous, roughly columnar masses so swiftly that in a short time they were towering high above the top of the mountain, their rounded white sides shining in the sun. Through the majestic colonnade thus formed one seemed to see infinite distances to the blue sky beyond.

In twelve hours from the time we left camp we were on horseback again and riding down the glacial valley. We ate supper by the light of the camp-fire, and after a few entries in our note-books no time was lost in seeking the comforting folds of our blankets.



THE IRON CROSS,
nineteen feet high, planted in the ice on the extreme summit.

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A TYPICAL GROUP.



THE CHANGING CHARACTER OF IMMIGRATION

BY

KATE HOLLADAY CLAGHORN

NEARLY half a million immigrants came to our shores during the year that ended June 30, 1900, the statistics of which have just been published. This is the largest number that has come since 1893. A curve showing the fluctuations of immigration since 1875 would rise rapidly after the low point of 1878 to more than three-quarters of a million in 1882 and sink again in 1886 to a third of a million, again rise to the highest point since then in 1892, and then rapidly decline till 1898.

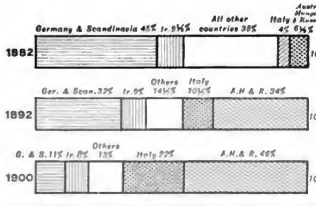
While these figures show nothing surprising as a total, an interesting change has taken place in the proportions of nationalities that come to us. Compare this year with two previous years of large immigration — 1882 and 1892 (which are the crests of the two highest waves), in respect to arrivals from Germany and the Scandinavian countries, regarded as one group, from Austria-Hungary and Russia, regarded as another group, from Ireland, and from Italy. German and Irish immigration has shrunk, and Italian has greatly increased.

It is noteworthy that the Austro-Russian group and the German-Scandinavian group have changed places as extremes since 1882. Last year, arrivals from Italy go beyond any previous record, with a total of over a hundred thousand, about double the arrivals from Germany and Scandinavia together, double the arrivals from Ireland in 1892, and one-third more than the Irish arrivals in 1882.



A RUSSIAN GIRL.

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PROPORTION TO ALL IMMIGRANT ARRIVALS FOR GIVEN YEARS OF ARRIVALS FROM GIVEN COUNTRIES

The change in the composition of our immigration is made even more plain by reducing the different national elements to percentages of the total immigration in each year considered, as is shown in the diagram of immigrants from given countries.

The decreasing elements have been grouped at one side of the table, the increasing elements at the other, in shaded blocks, the unshaded blocks between the shaded blocks representing all other elements in the totals of immigration for each year.

The statistics of immigration for successive years would be even more significant, however, if the present system of classifying arrivals according to race as well as to country of residence, had been adopted sooner. The student of social matters has to thank Mr. Edward F. McSweeney, the present Assistant Commissioner of Immigration at the Port of New York, for the introduction of this better system of classification, the first results from which are given in the reports of immigration for the year ending June 30, 1899.

It is now possible to disengage the significant racial facts. For example, we can tell from last year's figures that of the 90,787 arrivals from the Russian Empire, 12,515 were Finns, 37,011 were Hebrews, 32,797 were Lithuanians and Poles, and only 1165 were "Russians" proper.

Moreover, arrivals of the same race element from different countries may be grouped together. For instance, after grouping together



PASSING THROUGH THE BARGE OFFICE.

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AN ITALIAN TYPE.

all Germans by race, while arrivals from the German Empire in 1900 were 18,507, arrivals from all countries of persons of German race were 29,682. Hebrew arrivals for the year were 60,764. Arranging these figures by percentages of the total immigration in a bar makes the matter plainer to the eye.

The noticeable feature in recent immigration is the predominance of three racial stocks, usually considered of doubtful social and industrial value, — the Slavs, the Italians, and the Hebrews. Our problem now is the problem of the Italian, the Jew, and Slav — no longer of the Irishman and the German.



AN IRISHWOMAN.



A SYRIAN.

If we look at the human tide as it first washes our shores at the immigrant station, we shall see patient family groups — father, mother, and little children, old grandfather and grandmother, perhaps, and sturdy grown sons and daughters — as they sit beside their little possessions awaiting with eagerness the moment of their exit to a land of freedom and opportunity. The girls and women who pass the gate alone are moral and industrious peasants in the main — wives coming to husbands, sisters to brothers, or they are making the venture on their own responsibility. Even the bands of unattached men are not so bad as fancy paints them. Tall, ferocious-looking Croats and Slovacks are

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found, upon acquaintance with them under normal conditions, to be simple country fellows, ready to talk and sing, or to drink sociably, ready to work at anything that offers itself, planning to save the greater part of their earnings for wives and children left behind. Weather-beaten Italians, with seamed and lowering countenances, are meditating nothing darker than their chances of slipping by the inspector and gaining their foothold in the promised land.

We have practically no immigration from city slums, and very little from city populations of any sort, except the Russian Jewish immigrants, whose circumstances are peculiar,



A POLISH JEWESS.

and who cannot be said, as a people, to have become infected with the characteristic slum vices. Our immigrants as a whole are a peasant population, used to the open, with the simple habits of life, the crude physical and moral health that the open air and poverty together are apt to produce. Practically all the immigration from Austria-Hungary, which has grown so considerably of late years, is from the country, as is also the immigration from Italy. The Italian mendicant, who is seldom seen here, is a member of a highly specialized class, and is as unwilling to leave his city haunts as any other specialized and privileged social product of his country would be.

In the immigrant group as a whole are to be found poverty, ignorance, weakness, a pathetic patience, a no less pathetic hopefulness of what the future will bring, a childlike ingenuity of deceit in eluding the pains and penalties of detention and exclusion; but so little full-fledged and out-breaking viciousness that it is not worth talking about. In short, like the other class of beginners in citizenship, they come to us as little children, and claim our care and protection as such.



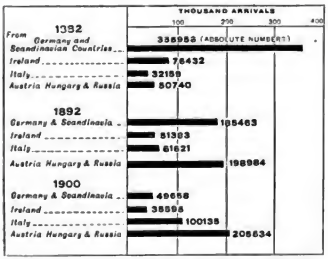
READY TO BE MADE AMERICAN.

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A REJECTED FAMILY.

But what course of training in citizenship is prepared for these grown-up children? A large proportion of them, for one reason and another, find their first homes in the slums of great cities. And so it unfortunately happens that, just as poverty and vice, ignorance and depravity, are confused together in our thought about them, so in our cities the newest immigrants, who are the most hopeful element in our slums, are brought in direct relation with the vicious and defective remnant left behind by earlier comers. The man who is climbing up the ladder stands, while still on the lowest round, with the man who has slipped down there from a higher place, or who has stood there forever.



NUMBER OF ARRIVALS FROM CERTAIN COUNTRIES FOR THE YEARS ENDING JUNE 30, 1882, 1892, 1900.

When the two sets of elements — the poor and the corrupt — come in contact, some mutual impression must be made. It has to be acknowledged that in some cases the incoming of newer peoples has had a distinctly beneficial effect in the neighborhoods they have taken possession of. In New York, for example, the old Fourth and Eleventh wards, long the haunt of the drunken sailor and his vicious mate, have been to a large degree cleaned up by the incoming of Greeks, Italians, and Russian Jews. Ground-floor tenements formerly occupied by saloons and dance halls are now the lodging places of Greek pedlers, who live together in peace, quiet, and order, smoking and playing cards at home of a rainy day, neither drinking nor fighting, well thought of by that great power in tenement-house life — the "housekeeper" — and by neighboring families. Above stairs newly arrived Italians, industrious and of sober habits, have driven out the drunken Irish pauper of the second generation, to the great satisfaction of the charitable agencies that have had to struggle for so many years with the latter class.

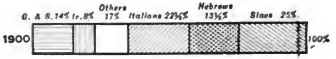
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POLACK GIRLS.

On the other hand, there are influences of tremendous force constantly at work to drag the newer immigrants down. Especially bad is the tenement house for the newly arrived immigrant. The robust physical health of the peasant fails in the poisonous air of his dwelling; such habits of cleanliness, order, and decency as the immigrant family may have brought with it are in serious danger of wreck in unsanitary and crowded quarters. Not knowing localities and prices, the immigrant takes up his abode in the parts of the city nearest his point of entry, which is, in New York, the most expensive part of the city, so far as rents are concerned. A family must not merely confine itself within as narrow limits as possible, but must, in order to meet the expense, ask another family to share the space already too narrow for itself. The moral as well as the physical evil that such crowding brings does not need to be described.

It is, perhaps, a fortunate rather than an unfortunate circumstance that as families of the newer races crowd into a given tenement, earlier comers move out. The "colony," composed of one sort of foreigners solely, representing approximately the same period of immigration, has this favorable feature, at least — it is made up of elements of similar kind. The old stager in vice and trickery is not so likely to be at hand to instruct the inexperienced new arrival in all branches of his art, nor the practised pauper, to give the



PROPORTION TO ALL IMMIGRANT ARRIVALS FOR 1900 OF ARRIVALS OF CERTAIN RACES

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dangerous lesson of dependence to the normally self-helpful immigrant.

All evils, however, are favored by an institution which is the greatest evil of them all,—that is, the peculiar system of political control under which our great cities groan, "politics for profit," an organized business, run primarily for the advantage of its managers, secondarily for the benefit of their sub-agents.

The tenement house itself, with all its evils involved, was here when the immigrant came; but the continuation of the worst features of the tenement, in spite of laws enacted for its improvement, is the direct result of "politics for profit." Requirements with regard to ground space to be occupied, to the size and character of air-shafts, to other matters of construction when the building is to be erected, requirements for the lighting of hallways, to proper sanitation, to the character of inmates, after the tenement is built, are violated with impunity.

The immigrant problem is a very serious one; but we succeed with it directly in proportion to our skill or neglect in dealing with it. The material is, in the main, good raw material for American citizenship.

There has never been a sufficiently careful oversight of fresh immigrants in our crowded cities; for they ought to be regarded as civic children and cared for as such. But somehow, in haphazard ways, we assimilate them



A FINNISH TYPE.

—developing the best traits in most of them but not in all, taking our chances. They take their chances, too, in coming; and the wonder is that we both survive the experiment as well as we do. The children of almost any kind of parents become American.



STARTING OUT FROM THE BARGE OFFICE.

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TWO VIEWS OF THE TOWN OF VANDERGRIFT, PENNSYLVANIA.
One showing the site in July, 1895, and the other the completed town in May, 1896.

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SELF-HELP TO EMPLOYEES

THE EXPERIENCE OF EMPLOYERS AS LANDLORDS—THE METHODS WHEREBY CONFIDENCE IS WON—WORKERS THAT OWN THEIR HOMES *VS.* WORKERS THAT LIVE IN TENEMENTS—A PERSONAL EXAMINATION OF FACTORY TOWNS IN NEW ENGLAND AND PENNSYLVANIA

BY

R. E. PHILLIPS

SUCCESSFUL betterment means mutual advantage to employer and worker — without charity. It means other things, too. But this first of all. Based upon this principle, it is of the highest national importance, whether applied to factory life or to home life and the life of the community.

In Newark, N.J., some years ago, an employer began to improve the condition of his operatives by giving them every summer a free outing at the seashore. To do this cottages were rented and board supplied. Nothing was paid by the employees, not even transportation.

In the factory a dining-room was fitted up. At noon tea and coffee were provided, and a piano made music and dancing possible. Allowances in time were made for those who lived at a distance from the factory or for those burdened with home duties, as in the case of one girl who had to prepare lunch for a large family of little children before going to work. Again, wages were paid Friday night, in order to give the employees, most of whom are girls, more time to do their Sunday marketing and necessary shopping. Curtains are hung at all the factory windows, the factory is kept clean, wages are the same as elsewhere for the same work, and the operatives work less than ten hours. With it all there is no expense to the employees. What is the result? In their outings the employees complained of their entertainment. For a raise of 25 cents a week in wages they will leave the factory. The free outings have been abandoned. For the factory advantages the company is now paying about $500 a year with no return, except, as the superintendent of the factory said, from the personal sympathy gained by his interest in the individual workers.

Here, then, is an example of a failure because the plans are based on charity. The opposite of this is illustrated by the plans in operation at the factory of the Gorham Company at Elmwood, near Providence, R.I.

As in the former case local conditions suggested plans for betterment. As the city of Providence furnishes living places for all the employees, it was unnecessary for the company to consider providing boarding-places. But a place for the employees to take their lunch was needed. For this there was no available room in the factory. So the company decided to build a lunch-room near by. As the plan was discussed, it expanded until the lunch-room became a casino or industrial club-house.

The main hall of the casino, measuring 60 × 30 feet, is set apart for the men's lunch-room. At the left is a smaller room for the women. Next is a special dining room for such occasions as meetings of the travelling men or of the firm. At the right is the library; in the basement are racks for three or four hundred bicycles; and on each end of the casino is a wide veranda, one for the women, the other for the men. Upstairs two rooms have been provided for the president and vice-president of the company. Only the use of the building is free; whatever is consumed is paid for. No one is, of course, compelled to eat lunch there. The casino is simply a convenience for such as care to use it. But there is no charity about it.

The company has about 1400 employees. About one-half live within fifteen minutes'

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walk of the factory, and so prefer to take their lunch at home. Of the remainder, between three and four hundred lunch at the casino. In the polishing department most of the men prefer to lunch at their working tables on account of their dusty clothes. Their orders are taken to them by monitors appointed by the company.

A system of apprenticeship has been introduced which is as unique as the casino. Apprentices enter into a five years' agreement to learn a trade — for instance, stone-setting, silversmithing, dye-cutting, engraving, etc. The company receives apprentices in twelve different departments of this sort. Faithful instruction is guaranteed. Wages begin at three dollars a week and are advanced one dollar a week each year, reaching seven dollars for the last year.

In addition, premiums are offered, based on adaptability, application, skill, rapidity, and general conduct. The limit of premiums runs from $25 the first year to $100 the fifth year. At the end of the period of service each apprentice receives a certificate.

The system went into operation last September, and since then only two out of seventy apprentices have asked releases. In one case sickness was the cause: in the other, an apprentice-jeweller wanted to change to diamond-setting. The old system was to receive boys who were "bound out" for a certain time; under it satisfactory applicants could not be found. At present the company is able to select its apprentices. The requirements are good moral character, health, and a fair education, the grammar schools of Providence being taken as the standard. Three months' trial service is also required. With these conditions, there is a large waiting-list.

While the company requires no assurance of continued service after apprenticeship, it naturally counts on receiving the results of its instruction in the majority of cases. But even apart from this, it has already secured a better class of apprentices, greater interest, and more and better work. Under this system no one applies with the idea of getting a temporary "job." The whole plan tends toward permanence of employment, better wages because of better preparation, and so, with all idea of charity eliminated, toward independence and mutual advantage.

A TOWN BUILT BY A FACTORY

Another interesting development along slightly broader lines has taken place in Ludlow, Mass., where the establishment of a large manufacturing company made necessary homes for their employees. When this corporation first went to Ludlow, in 1868, they found only a few old-fashioned tenements. There were only two streets in the village. A schoolhouse and a church were the only public buildings. Since that time the company has built about three miles of good roads, nearly two hundred houses and modern tenements, a schoolhouse, and a public library. They have also arranged for and partly built a modern system of sewerage. The school was rented to the town at the nominal sum of $100 a year. Friction soon arose, however, with the town authorities. The corporation, for instance, proposed the introduction of sewing and cooking. This was opposed. The corporation has now given up all interference with the management, but still gives the use of the property, and till a few years ago paid a quarter of the teachers' salaries. The free library, containing about 4000 books, was given to the town as a memorial of the company's treasurer. At present there are about a thousand cards out, most of them taken by employees of the company.

In the matter of houses it was hard to suit the tastes of all. Some wanted stairs leading directly from the front door; others wanted a large reception hall with stairs leading from one of the other rooms; some preferred a bath upstairs; others, downstairs; and so on. To meet these requirements several styles of houses and tenements have been built. The least expensive homes are in tenements. Here three rooms, without water, plumbing, or modern improvements of any kind, rent for $1.50 a month. In some such cases the rooms are not connected. This is the old style. Some of these tenements have ten or twelve rooms, with a common stairway. Only two beds are allowed in a room, and not more than four people. This was a necessary provision because, especially among the foreigners, overcrowding was the rule. In some cases as many as eight or ten were found occupying the same room. Some of the four-room apartments in these old-style tenements rent for $3 a month.

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Like the others, they have no modern improvements.

For from $4 to $6 a month, two-family houses are provided. These are practically separate, built as double houses, each with its own entrance-doors. One or two single houses, without bath or toilet, rent at $6. About a hundred 8-room cottages, built since sewerage was introduced, have baths and open plumbing throughout. The lots average 60 × 125 feet. Cottages of this style have been found most suitable to the majority of employees. Their rent averages from $5.50 to $8 a month.

THE DIFFICULTIES OF A COMPANY AS LANDLORD

The results of this system are instructive. The company, even at these low rents, makes a profit of about 2 per cent on the capital invested. The value of its property according to the tax assessment has doubled. But many of the employees regard the plan as a money-making scheme and are disaffected, though their wages are good and they are free to rent or not. This is especially the case among the unskilled and less intelligent class of workers. All the houses are rented, because rent is cheaper here than in the near-by villages. But the tenants take no care of the property, and many have been put out. The plan, then, is at best only a moderate success. The difficulty is twofold. First, lack of sympathy, which results in a misunderstanding of the company's motive. Second, the lack of independence which grows out of corporation ownership of homes.

Both these difficulties have been recognized by the company. It built Recreation House for the men, over which it exercises no supervision, but merely furnishes the building. The men have their own organization, elect their own officers as in a club, and have put in pool-tables, bowling alleys, etc., at their own expense. The result is that the men pay for what they get, and so feel independent. One of them referred with pride to the fact that the company had nothing to do with it. That the building had been provided was taken as a matter of course. The company could afford to do it. Here, then, in the minds of the workers, was the old idea of charity. For this reason sympathy failed to come as a result.

At the very beginning the company had planned to sell the houses, and had begun to do so, but encountered difficulties on that side too. One man who had partly paid for his home decided that he could do better elsewhere, but, being unable to sell at the moment, held the company to blame for his predicament. In another case a man sold his house to a family that kept chickens and pigs in the yard. To prevent further difficulty the company bought up all the houses it had sold and adopted the plan of renting, with the results related above.

That the workers do, however, actually prefer owning their homes is shown by the fact that they have started a settlement just beyond the limits of the land owned by the company. This is called "Little Canada." Here about twenty houses, containing from one to three tenements, have been built. The company is now planning to follow the idea here suggested, by offering either for rent or sale, small plots of ground at a little distance from the factory, where, in addition to having a suitable house, garden produce may be raised. "Little Canada," then, illustrates in a most practical way the necessity of considering in plans for "town" betterment the workers' independence. Moreover, it shows that even with moderate wages and no assurance of permanent work they are not averse to "binding" themselves by living in their own homes. What they are averse to is company control of property.

THE EXPERIMENT AT HOPEDALE, MASS.

In other places where the town is the result of the presence and growth of a manufacturing industry, the renting system has been carried out with more apparent marks of success. This is the case, for instance, in the town of Hopedale, Mass. Here the growth of a large loom industry belonging to the Draper Company has been largely instrumental in building up the town. But in the case of Hopedale, the average wages are higher, and a better class of operatives is employed than at Ludlow. They understand the company's motive in providing homes, even though the company receives the rent. In such a case the problem is simplified. But it is far from settled. In one of two large boarding-houses in Hopedale, for instance,

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owned by the company, an employee, speaking of the number of houses rented from the company, said that many were taken because the men had no option. They had to live somewhere, and the company owned most of the desirable houses. On the other hand, another employee said that he preferred boarding because he was never sure when it would come his turn to be laid off. These boarding-houses just mentioned have together accommodations for about 150 men. Board and lodging costs about $2 a day.

The houses built by this company are mostly double tenements. Each tenement rents for $3 a week. Fifty cents a week extra is charged for a furnace. Out of this amount the company pays the water tax. In that part of the town where most of these cottages are, the company has built an attractive park, with good roads and a modern system of sewerage. Although the houses vary in design, each has a large hall, a living room, dining room, kitchen, and pantry on the first floor, the three latter having hardwood floors. Upstairs there are three sleeping rooms and a bath. These houses represent an investment by the company of about $4000 to $4500 for each double tenement. The rent, which is more reasonable than for property not owned by the company, returns an interest of about 3 per cent on the capital invested. For such of the employees as cannot afford to pay this amount, cheaper houses have been provided and rent from $8 to $10 a month. At present about twenty brick, eight- to twelve-room tenement houses are being built, to provide still cheaper tenements of three or four rooms each.

To stimulate interest, the company offers $200 a year in prizes for the best-kept property. In this way, and by refusing to let their houses to undesirable tenants, they lose little by deterioration. Moreover, the company, by the money spent in town improvements, — it has built most of the roads, a town-hall, a library, school, etc., — has made of Hopedale a most attractive place for employees to live. At present, however, about half of them live in Milford and in the villages near by.

Hopedale has an advantage over Ludlow in the fact that the motive of the company is understood and appreciated by the employees. Here, also, employees rent from the company because they get more for their money than elsewhere in the village. In so far they are independent. But under the most favorable conditions of company ownership — of which Hopedale may be taken as an example — complete independence is impossible. That necessary conditions of working life do not, however, preclude such a possibility is strikingly illustrated under rather unusual conditions in the town of Vandergrift, Pa.

THE SUCCESS OF VANDERGRIFT, PA.

In 1886 the Apollo Iron and Steel Company obtained control of a manufacturing plant in the town of Apollo, near Pittsburg, which, though badly in need of repair, was used for some years, until the growth of the industry made new buildings and machinery indispensable. It was a question of rebuilding in Apollo or of beginning anew elsewhere. The latter course was adopted and a plot of land purchased on the Kiskiminetas River, about seven miles from the old factory site. In the old town there was very inadequate provision for homes for the mill hands. Moreover, any attempt to better this condition was met by opposition among the inhabitants of the town and dissatisfaction among the employees. In 1893 this culminated in a strike. For two months the works were shut down. This brought the final decision. When the factory was again in operation, the company issued a pamphlet announcing that a new town was to be built, in which all in the employ of the company might buy lots. The motive was fully explained. The right sort of men were to have good wages and permanent employment. The pay-roll would be doubled. The only restriction was that no liquor should be sold on the property. Beyond that possession was to be absolute. Moreover, the company was neither to build nor to furnish money for the building of houses, but was to provide an attractive living-place, with good roads and walks, artesian wells, sewers, lawns, electric lights, telegraph, and telephone. No one in accepting the offer was bound to remain in its employ. Only employees were to be given the first choice of lots.

Shortly after this, the site was prepared. About three and a half miles of streets were macadamized. An experienced landscape

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gardener laid out the streets and parks; a railway station was built; then a second announcement told what had been done and at what prices the lots would be sold. In Apollo, for the last five years, lots had averaged thirty-one cents a foot. In Vandergrift, the new town, twenty-five cents made the cost of residence lots, measuring 25 × 100 feet, from $750 to $1050. Corner lots were larger, and sold for forty cents. A certain number of lots for business purposes were offered at seventy-five and eighty-five cents.

By the first of June, 1896, many of the employees had selected their lots. On the 8th the first sales took place, and during the week following, which was set apart for the employees, 276 lots were sold for $275,013. Of the entire 800 lots all but about a hundred have been sold. This does not include about a hundred lots on the heights near the town, which sell at $100 a lot, for those who cannot afford the higher prices. The company still owns about 600 acres which can be improved as occasion demands.

To build their houses most of the employees borrow from land companies. Two of these are established in the town. They loan, on mortgage, to about three-fourths of the value. Four years is the limit for payment. The loan companies pay a mutual dividend. During the past four years about $200,000 has been loaned, and no mortgages foreclosed.

It is interesting to see what wages have made these results. Unskilled laborers get $1.40 a day. The rollers are paid from $8 to $10 a day. Some of the skilled workers receive as high as $15 a day. The average in the entire factory is from $4 to $5. At these wages the majority of workers own their own land and homes without encumbrances.

SELF-HELP, NOT CHARITY

The confidence of the men in the motive of the company is illustrated by the fact that during the first day of the sale a number of lots were assigned, while the announcement of prices was still in press. When it was brought to the notice of one of the men that no price had been specified, he replied that it didn't matter to him; he had been with the company long enough to know that they would always do the square thing. To this confidence the success of the undertaking is largely due.

From the outset, the company has helped its men by giving them an opportunity to help themselves. This has been the idea in all dealings with the people of the town, employees or not. Several lots put aside at the beginning for public buildings anticipated subsequent needs; but charity has been studiously avoided. For instance, the company offered the land and half the cost of building of as many churches as were desired, but stipulated that each church should cost $15,000, and that its members should pay the other half. A theatre was built on similar conditions. The total cost, including the fire department and council rooms connected with it, was $35,000. Of this the company paid $10,000 in return for stock.

A short time ago, the company refused an offer of two thousand volumes free for the town library. The president said that, so far as he was concerned, nothing should be done for the people of the town or for employees unless "they had a finger in the pie." A minister said to him a short time ago, "You are doing a fine work in Vandergrift, Mr. McMurtry." He replied, "The men are doing the fine work; we are merely giving them a show." On another occasion, the company was commended in the presence of the president for its philanthropy. "Philanthropy?" he replied; "I tell you frankly it is refined selfishness, — but it counts for mutual good." Apart from having a better and more permanent class of employees, the company has made a reasonable profit on the capital invested, not counting 150 lots and considerable outside property still to be improved.

The average cost of houses built by employees is about $2500. Of their own accord, the men decided that all houses should be at least twenty feet from the sidewalk, so coöperating with the company in making the town as attractive as possible. In the centre of the town is a large green, planted with flowers and shrubs. On one side of this, a little distance away, are the factory buildings; on the other, the business blocks. The residence streets are laid out in curves, conforming to the lay of the land, and forming a semicircle around the business portion and the green.

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To avoid all paternalism, the business part of the town has been rented entirely to outsiders, who own all the stores, care having been taken to keep the company's employees from interesting themselves in them. The company still owns the "Inn" — a small hotel built for the accommodation of employees before their homes were completed. But this, together with the water and gas supply and drainage system, it has offered to sell to the people at any time at cost, for it intends to follow out the principles originally laid down — to make the town entirely independent.

In the factory little is done for employees, aside from giving them good wages and moderate hours for work. In the sheet mill the men are paid by the ton, and work in three turns of eight hours each. In the entire factory the average working day is eight and one-half to nine hours. No provision is made for lunch, because a settled lunch hour is impossible. The men eat their lunch when not busy. Baths are not a necessity, because the majority of the workers have them in their own homes. A system of benefits was tried at the old factory in Apollo without success. Here it has not been continued. The men are urged to insure themselves in outside companies. An emergency hospital has been built near the factory, and in certain cases wages are paid during illness. But this is considered not as an institution of charity, but as a part of the cost of production. It takes the place in no way of outside insurance.

The town of Vandergrift, then, offers an example of a community built up on the principle of self-help and independence. Workers and outsiders form one society. A delegate from one of the labor unions recently visited Vandergrift, intending to show the men that in buying homes they placed themselves under the control of the company. "That man didn't understand the system," said one of the employees; "we sent him back by the first train." This illustrates the spirit that prevails. "We are all happy here," said another, "even to the cat and dog." In Vandergrift the essential principles of betterment have been applied. The motive of the company was made clear, confidence was obtained, and the entire plan was based on mutual advantage — without charity. The result is independence. It stands for closer industrial relations between employer and employee.

ANECDOTES OF JOHN MARSHALL

HIS long-time associate, Justice Story, drew the best pen-picture of John Marshall that has come down to us. "His body," wrote Story, "seemed as ill as his mind was well compacted; he was not only without proportion, but of members singularly knit, that dangled from each other and looked half dislocated. Habitually, he dressed very carelessly in the garb, but I would not dare to say in the mode, of the last century. You would have thought he had on the old clothes of a former generation, not made for him even by some superannuated tailor of that period, but gotten from the wardrobe of some antiquated slop-shop of second-hand raiment. Shapeless as he was, he would probably have defied all fitting by whatever skill of the shears; judge, then, how the vestments of an age when apparently coats and breeches were cut for nobody in particular, and waistcoats were almost dressing-gowns, sat upon him." Story, in another description, says Marshall's hair was black, his eyes small and twinkling, his forehead rather low, but his features generally harmonious; and he speaks of an occasional embarrassment in his speech, from a hesitancy and drawling, of a laugh "too hearty for an intriguer," and of his good temper and unwearied patience on the bench and in the study.

A gentleman, long resident in Washington, has often told the writer how his father, a practitioner in the Supreme Court, once sent him to the house of the Chief Justice for some legal papers. He presented his father's note, and Marshall was quick to detect the bashfulness of the lad. He read

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the note, selected the papers, tied them up in a bundle, and then said: "Billy, I believe I can beat you playing marbles; come into the yard, and we will have a game." The boy assented, and soon he was engaged in childish play with the Chief Justice. All his embarrassment was gone, and the game proved an exciting one, both being skilful players.

Marshall, when Chief Justice, passed much of his time at his home in Richmond. The court had a small docket in those days, and the vacations were more frequent than now and of longer duration. He would bundle up cases, go to Richmond for the vacation, and write his decisions there. He had a spacious house of colonial design in the city (now occupied by his granddaughters), and in his grounds was a noted spring of pure water, surrounded by splendid elms and giant oaks. The great jurist, in pleasant weather, would retire to this spring to read and ponder the cases before him.

A short time ago a very distinguished visitor from a distance went to see Marshall's granddaughters, and he began to talk of the Chief Justice's great devotion to the Union. Turning suddenly to one of the ladies, he asked: —

"Do you not think so, madam?"

"I don't know," she answered quietly and rather abstractedly, "but I do know if he had lived in 1861 he would have gone with Virginia."

One day, Judge Marshall, engrossed in his reflections, was driving over the wretched roads of North Carolina on his way to Raleigh in a stick gig. His horse turned out of the road, and the sulky ran over a sapling and was tilted so as to arouse the Judge. When he found that he could move neither to right nor left, an old Negro who had come along solved the difficulty.

"My ole marster," he asked, "what fer you don't back your horse?"

"That's true," said the Judge, and he acted as advised. Thanking his deliverer heartily, he felt in his pocket for some change, but he did not have any.

"Never mind, old man," he said, "I shall stop at the tavern and leave some money for you with the landlord."

The old Negro was not impressed with the stranger, but he called at the tavern, and asked the keeper if an old gentleman had left anything there for him.

"Oh, yes," said the landlord, "he left a silver dollar for you. What do you think of that old gentleman?"

The Negro gazed at the dollar and said:

"He was a gem'man, for sho'; but" — patting his forehead — "he didn't have much in here."

Stronger than Marshall's love for his children was his love for his wife. Mrs. Marshall, during the many years that she was an invalid, never attended church. Her husband before he went there on Sunday mornings always read the service to her, and after her death he continued this practice seated in his own chair near the one she was wont to occupy. "From the hour of our union to that of our separation," he wrote on the first anniversary of her death, "I never ceased to thank Heaven for this its best gift." And — "I have lost her, and with her the solace of my life. Yet she still remains the companion of my retired hours, still occupies my inmost bosom. When alone and unemployed my mind still recurs to her."

A sound mind in a sound body, Marshall, like Washington, had nothing to fear from great labor. When Erskine took leave of the bar to become chancellor, he boasted that in seven-and-twenty years indisposition had never kept him from court. Marshall never boasted; but it is a memorable fact that for thirty-three years he was scarcely ever absent from the bench, but almost always at his post, with wonderful capacity of body and mind. Boyish buoyancy of spirits remained with him to the last. When more than seventy-five years old, he still relished with undiminished zest the pleasures of the table or the club, nor did his right hand ever forget its cunning at quoits.

The erroneous report has been published that the Marshall tombs (of the Justice and his wife) are in a shamefully neglected condition. These tombs are in old Shockoe cemetery at Richmond, which at the time of Marshall's death was the principal burying-ground of the city. There are graves there of many families which are entirely extinct, and some are in bad condition; but the Marshall tombs are square, substantial, and well cared for, and the sod around them is neat and green.

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GERMANY UNDER A STRENUOUS EMPEROR

HER RISE TO A WORLD-POWER UNDER WILLIAM II—HER COLONIAL AMBITIONS—HER RELATIONS TO RUSSIA AND FRANCE AND HER DEEP JEALOUSY OF ENGLAND—THE POLITICAL GAME OF THE FUTURE AND ITS GREAT STAKES

BY

SYDNEY BROOKS

IT used to be said of Louis Napoleon that he deceived Europe twice—once when he succeeded in passing himself off as an idiot, and again when he succeeded in passing himself off as a statesman. Of the German Emperor it may at best be said that he has deceived Europe once. As Prince William and again as Crown Prince he puzzled almost as much as he alienated. He seemed indeed at one time to find positive pleasure in making it well-nigh impossible for people to detect in him anything but a rather self-willed and theatrical youth, consumed with Chauvinism, and lending himself with an avidity that seemed more French than German to the easy histrionics of militarism. Wherever he went the full stage-effects of a regimental setting went with him. Whenever he spoke it was in flaming apostrophe of the sword and martial glory and the heroic deeds of Frederick the Great. The world is rather inclined to be suspicious of princely rhetoricians, and the frequency with which he used his genuine powers of declamation created more disquietude than admiration. Moreover, the perpetual rattling of the sabre, especially for Constitutionalists of the severe British type, did nothing to disperse that sense of insecurity, that atmosphere of glittering *charlatanerie*, which kept the world so long on a nervous stretch.

The matter wore quite another air when it became known that the Crown Prince Frederick was suffering from cancer of the throat, and might even fail to survive his venerable father. The world watched that piteous race for death in an anguish of sympathy it had not felt since the days of President Garfield's long agony. I do not wish to go into the details of that unhappy time. It was a period of blunder and misunderstanding all round, a wretched, lingering tragedy dragged out under the eye of the whole world. Crown Prince William had his full share of the mistakes. Public attention was fastened upon him as the coming Emperor, and he could not help showing his consciousness of it. He seemed at times to act as though his father were already in the grave. His speeches multiplied in vehemence and fervid imagery, and not a chance was let slip by of posing before the people in full pageantry of war.

As Crown Prince he brought himself into a prominence which, considering the shadow that lay across his father's life, struck foreigners as scarcely in good taste. But whatever the rest of Europe might have thought of it, in Germany his speeches and lime-light effects made him the darling of the masses, and his barely veiled antagonism to the English influences which surrounded his father won him the devotion of the army and aristocracy. The outside world, however, saw in him and continued for many years to see in him only a prancing German edition of Harry Hotspur, dashing, wilful, with an instinct for flashy and inopportune display, and terribly fond of beating the war-drum—not at all the sort of Prince whose accession to the dominant throne of Europe could be hailed by foreign Powers with warmth.

Nor was their uneasiness lessened by the opening act of the young Emperor's reign. His father's ambition was to be "a citizen-king"; William II.'s evidently was that of "a war-lord." Within a few hours after the close of Frederick the Noble's pathetic ninety-nine days' reign, his successor had issued thrilling and exalted addresses to his army and navy. Within six weeks, with quivering

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and, as some thought, unseemly haste, he had visited Peterhof, Stockholm, and Copenhagen; and that neither Denmark nor France might be under any illusions as to where he stood on the North-Schleswig question and Alsace-Lorraine, he declared on his return that "we would rather leave our united eighteen Army Corps and our forty-two millions of inhabitants lying on the field of battle than relinquish one single stone of what was won by my father and Prince Frederick Charles."

Therewith the young Kaiser set himself to rejuvenate the services by weeding out old and incompetent officers with a merciless eye to public efficiency; reorganized the ministerial and diplomatic bureaus; commanded an army corps at the manœuvres; and before the astonished world could draw its breath, was off again on another tour — this time to the capitals of his allies in the Dreibund. For some years after his accession Europe literally hugged itself in apprehension of what he might be up to next. It seemed to be his pose to stand out as *l'enfant terrible* among sovereigns, to be perpetually startling the world by some freakish impulse, some grotesque oration, some new display of meretricious versatility. The world watched his manifold changes with laughter, amazement, and half-scandalized applause. William the Traveller, William the Orator, William passionately propounding the doctrine of divine right, William scolding his nobles and citizen subjects and glorifying his army, William devising new uniforms and court dresses, William "dashing to pieces all who oppose me," William the Colonizer, William building a fleet, William painting pictures, William dismissing Bismarck and becoming in truth William the Second to None, — in all his characters he amused, mystified, shocked, or disturbed the wondering world.

But we have grown used to the Kaiser now. It may be that the first hot flush of youth has passed and left him less exuberant, or that we have revised our early impressions. Anyhow there has been a change. No one to-day thinks of the German Emperor as a peril to European peace. No one imagines that he will ever wage a war for glory as Frederick the Great did, or indeed for anything but the defence of his Empire. The nervousness he once excited has died down. But for an occasional indiscretion, like his telegram to President Krueger or his injunction to the Chinese expedition to imitate the example of Attila, it would have disappeared altogether. The world has come to see the man beneath the trappings. Under an odd covering of mediæval instincts and impetuous deed and word it recognizes a really statesmanlike mind and a supreme ability to turn every accident of international politics to his country's use. Indeed, using the word in its narrower sense, as one would use it, for instance, in speaking of Disraeli, one might properly describe the Kaiser as the most remarkable statesman in Europe. He is laughed at no longer — a man who can live down laughter can live down anything; or if we are forced to an occasional smile, it embraces not the man, but only some odd way he has of displaying himself. I have always thought that those amazing "mailed fist" speeches at Kiel, followed by the seizure of Kiao-chou, were typical of the Imperial methods. First the bombast and dramatics and inflated rhetoric that beguiled the whole world with merriment, and then the sharp and supreme stroke of policy that brought its merriment to a sudden stop. It was a *coup* worthy of the man who had studied statesmanship under Bismarck, strategy under Moltke, and the craft of kings under William.

The world had one opinion of Louis Napoleon when he dawdled round English racecourses and gambling houses, and another and very different opinion when he flashed upon the world as the author of the *coup d'état*. The two estimates hardly differed so greatly as people's judgment of the German Emperor in 1890 and their judgment of him to-day.

Germany, one must always bear in mind, is still only half a nation, and needs and will need for some time yet a strong paternal government to rally round. The war of 1870 achieved a political unity, but even its fierce flames could not wholly destroy that localism of interest and aim, that narrow and stubborn particularism, which runs all through the tale of German history Only a wise and beneficent absolutism, creating and infusing a sense of oneness and common patriotism, can do that. The Kaiser never loses sight of this necessity of generating a spirit of

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broad nationality; and the fact that he has such a task to address himself to explains much that seems obscure and fantastic to Englishmen or Americans; explains, for example, his insistence on the divine right by which he holds his title, the emphasis he lays on the sacredness of allegiance, and the habitual glorification of himself as the figure-head of the state. Americans may at least sympathize with the Kaiser's strainings after something more than a localized loyalty when they recall the circumstances of their own early history and remember the all but insuperable obstacles placed in the path of American unity by the fears and jealousies of the states. In Germany the honest but petty idea of state patriotism, being always associated with the fortunes of some reigning House, struck far deeper roots than elsewhere. History, geography, and the peculiarities of the German temperament made it the political curse of the country. For whole centuries the Germans knew no middle term between the village and the entire world. Of the nation both the sense and the meaning were lost; and except politically I doubt whether they are even yet wholly found. Where the American has schooled himself on the whole to put the nation before the state, the first instinct of the German is still to reverse the order of precedence; and in combating this instinct, in bending it to the precepts of disciplined duty, lies the first task of Imperial statesmanship.

It is a task beset with difficulties. The German Empire is made up of the fusion of twenty-five distinct and sovereign entities — four kingdoms, six Grand Duchies, five Duchies, seven Principalities, three Free Towns, and the Reichsland of Alsace-Lorraine. Within his own domains each ruler, whatever his title — King, Prince, Grand Duke, or Duke — is virtually omnipotent. Each, too, is as independent of the German Emperor in all local matters as any governor of an American state is of the President.

It needs vigilance, activity, and a rigid insistence on his prerogatives to enable the Kaiser to disentangle himself from the crowd of petty princelings and to educate his people up to the point of subordinating the state to the Empire. The coincidence of a weak Hohenzollern with one or two able and ambitious Grand Dukes or kinglets may yet produce a severe constitutional deadlock. Even as it is, probably one man out of every ten is disaffected to the Empire; some because they are Southern Catholics and resent the rulership of Protestant Prussia almost as much as they resent the exclusion of the Jesuits; some because they are ultra-Liberals of the extremest doctrinaire type and impatient of everything short of the full shibboleths of democracy, impatient of Prussian paternalism, of a Parliamentary régime without the party system, of ministers responsible to the Crown instead of to the people, of the ubiquitous police agent, of whatever stands in the way of the dominion of the incorrigible mob; others, again, because they are Social Democrats and in opposition to everything; others from an old standing jealousy of Prussia and resentment of "Prussian arrogance." It is no exaggeration to say that the most persistent and capable foes of the German Empire are within her own borders.

Against these centrifugal forces the Kaiser has striven with indomitable vigor and ability, and on the whole with success.

Much still remains to be done, many gaps have yet to be bridged over. The concentrated provincialism of the aristocracy must be exorcised if the Crown is not to lose what should be its strongest connecting link with the people. The growth of Socialism, the double-faced loyalty of the Clericals and the intemperate doctrinairism of the Liberals, are each and all menaces to the domestic future.

Germany, at present, is half English at one end and half Russian at the other — an autocracy based on universal suffrage. It is likely before another fifty years have gone by to be all one thing or all the other; and looking to the history and temper of the Hohenzollerns it is hard to conceive that the lapse into constitutionalism will be wholly without convulsions. There are, therefore, grave times ahead of Germany. But at present one must note it as a tribute to the Kaiser's skill that Germany is the one Continental power that feels herself on the crest of the rising wave, that has the invigorating consciousness of a great destiny within her. The dawn of the twentieth century finds her the queen of the Continent and confidently facing the future.

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Of the part Germany is to play in that future the Kaiser has large and grandiose views, and a clever knack of getting them realized. Nothing except the imposing development of Russian policy in the Far East has been finer to watch of late years than the masterful fashion in which he has transformed Germany from a European state into a world-power. The days — as Herr von Bülow, the Chancellor of the Empire, was explaining about a year ago — when the German abandoned to one of his neighbors the earth and to another the sea, and when he reserved to himself only the heavens above, the throne of pure doctrinaire theory, — are dead and gone. That is a point which the Kaiser never wearies of hammering home. In season and out, whether an occasion presents itself naturally or has to be manufactured for the purpose, he preaches the gospel of *Weltpolitik*. Perhaps his exposition of it in the summer of 1900 was both his best and pithiest.

"The ocean is indispensable to the greatness of Germany. But the ocean proves, too, that no great decision can now be taken at sea, or on distant lands beyond the sea, without Germany and without the German Emperor. I do not consider that the German nation fought and bled and conquered thirty years ago in order to allow itself to be thrust aside at the settlement of great questions of foreign politics. Were that to take place, it would be the end once for all of the position of the German nation as a world-power; I do not mean to let things come to that pass. Ruthlessly to employ suitable, and, when it is imperative, the sharpest, means to carry out this policy is not merely my duty; it is my highest privilege."

Duty or privilege, or both, the Kaiser presses forward to his goal unfalteringly. The colonies, it is true, have not so far proved a great success. The estimates for the current year show that subsidies from the Imperial exchequer of just under $6,500,000 will be needed to balance the African and Pacific accounts. I have gone carefully into the statistics of Germany's transmarine possessions and cannot find that more than 3500 Germans — of whom nearly 1500 are officials — have settled under the German flag. In Africa Germany controls an area of 1,000,000 square miles and an estimated population of about 14,000,000. Her stake in that continent will be considerably increased when the Anglo-German agreement of 1898, which provides for the division of the Portuguese possessions in Africa between England and Germany, takes effect. But it is clear that Germany's holdings in Togoland, the Cameroons, and east and southwest Africa are not in any real sense colonies. They are merely trading stations, admirably administered in many ways, but incapable of receiving the surplus population of the Fatherland or of becoming an integral part of the Empire. Germany has not yet founded a single community of the type of the British self-governing colonies — a community, that is, which promises to maintain and spread German civilization, language, and law. Politically and strategically her scattered possessions in Africa and the Pacific are hostages to fortune. The common explanation of the virtual failure of Greater Germany — that the Germans are at present too military and bureaucratic in form and spirit to colonize successfully — is only partially true. No doubt the German emigrant does complain of being dogged by the drill-sergeant and half strangled by officialdom, and no doubt his complaints are largely justified and the German system not yet sufficiently elastic. But Alsace-Lorraine and especially such towns as Strasburg, where the Germans have done more in thirty years than the French ever did in two hundred, prove that the Germans are capable of the soundest and most vigorous kind of administrative work. The real fact is that Germany came too late into the colonizing field. Herr Richter was right when he exclaimed in the Reichstag: "Cake! The cake was divided long ago!" That is it. Germany has had to content herself with the crumbs from the table. Wherever she turns in Africa or the Pacific she finds the really tempting and valuable regions already preëmpted. Her road is blocked, and the question whether she is destined to become one of the civilizing agents of the earth decided against her.

The Kaiser may go on annexing swamp after swamp and coaling station after coaling station, but he will find himself in the end no more a veritable colonial power than he is now, unless he strikes out on a new trail. But this, it may be said, he has already done in China. In spite of its unhealthiness, I am a believer in the commercial opportunities of

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Kiao-Chou and its hinterland, and expect before long to see Germany pegging out a considerably larger claim in Shantung than she has yet secured. Even so the vigilant rivalries of England, Russia, and Japan set a distinct limit to her ambitions; and while its return in trade and its value as a *point d'appui* may always be solid, I doubt the possibility of Shantung becoming a field for German emigration or a colony in any vital sense of the word. If Germany is ever seriously to emulate the Imperial career of Great Britain, it is not in Africa or in the Pacific or in China that she will have to look for the development of Greater Germany, but in South America and Asia Minor.

Germany is now exporting to South America goods to the value of nearly $50,000,000 a year, about 70 per cent of which goes to Brazil, Argentina, Chile, and Mexico; and in these four republics the number of German settlers seems to be not far short of 100,000. They are drawn from the trading, not the laboring classes, keep well in touch with the fatherland, and form a prosperous, influential, and clannish community. If the Germans have not done as much as the English to exploit South America, it is simply because they came there later. Since their arrival they have managed, as they always do, to get ahead of their rivals, and now own a very considerable share of the mining, railroad, and banking concessions, while more than one South American loan has been successfully floated in Berlin. It is possible under these circumstances to imagine many things. South America is the land of upheavals. A spirit of revolutionary turbulence broods over the entire continent from Patagonia to the Gulf of Panama; and one knows how conveniently apt the property of the citizens of a country that is bent on expansion is to get damaged, and to need protection whenever there is the slightest disorder. Imagine, for instance, the outbreak of such a revolution as plunged Paraguay thirty years ago into a welter of anarchy and savage warfare. Who could guarantee in such an event that the Kaiser might not think German interests sufficiently endangered to warrant some such intervention as wrested Kiao-Chou from China? Or conceive 100,000 Germans settled in Brazil. How long would they be likely to remain satisfied with the *mestizo* attorneys and political adventurers in control of the government at Rio Janeiro? Or suppose, once more, a German warship destroyed in a South American port as the *Maine* was destroyed. The Kaiser, any Kaiser, would as soon think of abdicating as of hesitating to make war under such provocation, or, having made war, of shrinking from the only means of preventing such an occurrence in the future. I do not say that any of these things must or even will happen; I merely state the possibilities — they *may* happen. It seems, at any rate, incredible that South America should remain for another fifty years as it is now. Starting from that supposition and putting, on the one side, Germany's holdings and settlements in South America, the Kaiser's eagerness to acquire territory, and the sporadic unrest that might easily justify such acquisition, and, on the other side, the deep and determined loyalty of Americans to the Monroe Doctrine and their absolute refusal to share their continent with Europe, — and one arrives at a situation which, if not immediately dangerous, has in it some fairly obvious elements of anxiety. I conceive that the South American question may yet vitally influence the relations of Germany and the United States.

That, however, is an affair possibly of the distant future; German expansion in Asia Minor is a matter of here and now. It used to be said that whatever country might stand first in the good-will of the Sultan, Germany always stood second. Russia, England, or France might, for a moment, be the preponderating influence at Constantinople; but their rivalries and changes of fortune never seemed to affect the solid, unvarying position of Germany. Whoever had the Sultan's ear, Germany was always just behind the throne. It is only one more proof of the Kaiser's political sagacity that he has now elbowed out his competitors and is accepted at the Gildiry Kiosk as Turkey's best and only friend in Europe. His officers have drilled the Ottoman army; whatever of European varnish is visible in the Turkish government is of German make. Russian authority at Constantinople is founded on the fears of the Sultan; Germany's on a businesslike friendship. The Kaiser did the Sultan an inestimable service when he thwarted and restrained the Concert

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of Europe after the Armenian massacres. It was not a service rendered *pour les beaux yeux d'Abdul.* The Kaiser did not affront the civilized instincts and emotions of the world for nothing. His reward lies in Syria and Asia Minor.

Thither within the last decade have flocked the German bagman, the German banker, engineer, and colonist in their thousands. German capital is building one road from Bagdad to the shores of the Mediterranean, and another from Constantinople to Biredjik, on the upper waters of the Euphrates. Germany, in short, has carved out in the near East, among the *disjecta membra* of the Turkish Empire, a sphere of commercial and political interest which, if all goes well, and if Russia can be soothed into acquiescence, may yet be a veritable part of the Fatherland. The Kaiser's visit to the Holy Places at the end of 1898, most adroitly converted by him into an occasion of gratifying both the Sultan and the Pope, was really a tour of inspection round the estate he hopes to fall heir to. He came back from it with some valuable concessions for German merchants in his pocket, and the future may quite easily see more astonishing developments than the planting of the German Eagle in Palestine, at Acre, or the little port of Haifa, and the settlement of a prosperous German colony on the fertile soil of Syria.

Those regions have still an immense part to play in the world's history. It is even possible that the German expansionists, of whom the Kaiser is the apostle, do not err when they estimate that a new German nation of ten million people could support itself on the resources of Asia Minor. Syria, at all events, seems destined to rise from its ashes, and cities more magnificent than they may yet cover the sites of Babylon and Nineveh. The power that gets the strongest foothold in Palestine and Syria will not only control the great world-road that is to connect Constantinople *via* Palestine, Persia, India, and Burmah with Hong Kong, but will also be in a position to menace the Suez Canal and Egypt, and dominate the Mediterranean. In the Near as in the Far East Germany is playing for big stakes.

One may therefore conclude that while some of Germany's holdings in Africa and the Pacific are doubtful assets, others like Togoland and the Cameroons are well on the way to becoming self-supporting distributing centres for German trade; that her acquisitions in China are of indisputable value, and that her prospects in South America and especially in Asia Minor are of real promise.

On the other hand, time alone can show whether Greater Germany is ever to become an outlet for the congested home population. After all, the wonderful thing is not that Germany's colonies should fall short of complete success, but that she should have any colonies at all. It is less than thirty years since Bismarck in his unrestrained way declared that "as for us Germans, colonies would be exactly like the silks and sables of the Polish nobleman who had no shirt to wear under them." And possibly the real value of Greater Germany, for the present at all events, is to be looked for in its effect on the Fatherland. Colonies have put the coping-stone on Germany's international position, have given an immense moral impetus to her trade, and have provided her subjects with a common interest and accustomed them to look beyond Europe and Berlin to wider fields of action. They have also placed within the Kaiser's reach an argumentative weapon, which he wields with the deftness of the most astute electioneering agent, to bring home to his people the necessity of a first-class fleet.

The key-note of German foreign policy is and inevitably must be friendship with Russia. After Bismarck's valiant declaration that "we Germans fear God and no one else," it might seem unkind to suggest that perhaps the Chancellor had confounded the Deity with the Czar. But it is at any rate clear to demonstration, and scarcely a week goes by without making it clearer, that in spite of an instinctive antipathy between the two peoples, the Germans are most nervously sensitive on the question of Russian good-will. They have not so far been obliged to make many sacrifices to secure it, but they never let a chance slip by of assuring St. Petersburg, as the new Chancellor put it last November, "that between a well-conducted German policy and a well-conducted Russian policy there ought to be no radical opposition, or, at least, no opposition

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which cannot be bridged over." Under the circumstances, however much Germans may inwardly revolt from it, this is the only possible line to take.

Since Russia and France have come together Germany's position in Europe is that of a besieged fortress, and in the event of another attack from the west the neutrality of Russia along the eastern frontier is almost a question of national existence. In that one fact lies the clew to the main objects of Germany's continental policy — the maintenance of the Triple and the disruption of the Dual Alliance. Towards France the Kaiser has no sort of enmity. He has indeed repeatedly gone out of his way with a score of little courtesies and compliments to conciliate his irascible neighbors, — but only, of course, on the understanding that Alsace-Lorraine remains as it is now. Just as Bismarck after Sadowa spared no pains to reconcile Austria to the inevitable, so the Kaiser has striven for thirteen years to induce France to let bygones be bygones. And he has been wondrously successful. According to the popular English and American idea France is still thirsting for *la Revanche*. It is a delusion. The French peasant is absolutely against war with Germany, since he knows what invasion means. The General Staff on its part is aware that France stands no chance against Germany. It is also aware that Russia will give no help in upsetting the treaty of Frankfort. The Dual Alliance is based on "existing territorial arrangements," and France awoke to the fact finally and forever at the Fashoda crisis. With an all but stationary population she is being rapidly outpaced in the competition for armaments by the country that automatically adds nearly a million to its numbers every year. France has made splendid sacrifices for national defence, so splendid that she can make no more; but the result of it is that while she may reasonably regard her western frontier as secure, an offensive war with any hope of success is still beyond her. It is galling, but there is no help for it, and the feeling has been growing that since it is impossible to retrieve the past it may be wiser to forget it.

Moreover, France is beginning to realize that she cannot afford the luxury of two first-class hatreds. She cannot hope to be strong enough to brave Germany by land and England at sea. Sooner or later a choice will have to be made, one of her ambitions dropped and one of her enmities discarded. It takes no preternatural acuteness to see that the dominant emotion of the France of to-day is antagonism not toward Germany but toward England. Pick up any of the journals that Frenchmen really read, — which unhappily are not the journals that English and American correspondents think it worth while to quote, — and for every philippic against Germany you will find half a dozen against Great Britain. Since the Dreyfus case, Fashoda, and the Boer war, this animosity has grown to white heat. Even in Pitt's time the hatred and suspicion of England and all things English among Frenchmen of every class were not more waspishly malignant. France, in short, has a new *Revanche*.

This, as all German statesmen realize, is their opportunity, and they are making the most of it. I do not say that the notion of a Franco-German *rapprochement* is yet as popular in Paris as in Berlin; but I have no hesitation in saying it is no longer unpopular. The ground has been prepared; the seed is sown, and a close alliance between the victors and vanquished of the war of 1870 is one of the possibilities, perhaps even one of the probabilities, of the next twenty-five years. The prime basis of such an alliance would be the destruction of the British Empire, a project as favorably viewed on one side of the Rhine as on the other. Its cement would be found in the division of the small outstanding kingdoms of Holland and Belgium.

It is, I am convinced, a mistake to suppose that German expansion must necessarily be outside Europe. Those who have followed German political literature with care know well enough that the desire to obtain a firm footing on the shores of the North Sea has been present for generations. The settlement of the northeastern frontier of Holland by the Congress of Vienna was a bitter disappointment to the Prussian national party of the day; and somewhere at the back of the German mind is a more or less inchoate resolve to rectify that mistake. The idea of forcing Holland into a Customs Union, to be followed afterwards by a Military and Naval Convention, has never been abandoned. It is still less

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likely to be thrown overboard in the future. The further Germany ventures in *Weltpolitik*, the more steadily will she keep her eyes on the Dutch colonies. As to Belgium, the reversion of which will fall to France, one has only to recall Napoleon's dictum that "Antwerp in French hands would be like a pistol held to the head of England;" one has only to remember the Benedetti revelations to realize how eagerly France would jump at the chance of securing the country.

Nor is this the limit of the ambitions of Pan-Germanism. Just across the southwestern borders, in Austria-Hungary, are some eight million Germans, growing year by year less and less satisfied with their position in the realm of the Hapsburgs and insensibly gravitating towards Berlin. These Pan-Germanism has already marked for its own. Both in Berlin and Vienna exist fully formed and active parties with no other plank in their platform than the consolidation of all German-speaking Austrians with the German Empire. If their projects ever come to a head, only one more short step will be needed, and Germany will debouch on the Adriatic.

Even in this slight sketch of the tendencies of German ambitions it will be seen how complicated and manifold are the threads of policy that are gathered up in the Foreign Office of Berlin. To found one empire in China and another in Asia Minor without offending Russia; to create a sphere of influence in South America without rousing the suspicions of the United States; to absorb all of Africa she can lay hands on; to incorporate Holland and German-speaking Austria, planting one foot at Rotterdam and another at Trieste; to purchase coaling stations in the Pacific, and generally to be the first and highest bidder whenever any territory anywhere comes into the market, — to do all this and yet maintain peace is assuredly a varied and grandiose programme. But while the Kaiser is quite sincere in saying that peace is the greatest of German interests, — an aggressive peace, that is; a peace in which German interests are very vigorously looked after,— it is his obvious policy to set England at odds with France, France with Russia, and Russia with England.

Especially, unless I am mistaken, is it the supreme object of German policy to humiliate England. If ever there is a serious anti-British coalition again, its brain-power will be found in Berlin. *Delenda est Britannia* is the avowed motto of the German Chauvinists, and the sentiment has gained incredible ground during the past decade among all classes of the Kaiser's subjects. It is now almost an axiom in Germany that the greatest obstacle to her development is the country which has enjoyed seventy years' start of her in the race for trade and empire, which holds dominion of the seas and blocks her path at every turn. What William I. did for the army, William II. intends to do for the navy, and the Germans, who have nothing of the maritime spirit, are won over to give him all the ships he needs by skilfully dropped hints as to their ultimate purpose and the enemy against whom they are to be directed. The influence of anglophobia on international politics is hardly yet to be calculated with any certainty, but I rather apprehend that it will be the pivot of Germany's foreign policy for another decade at least, and only disappear under the gathering stringency of her relations with Russia.

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KITCHENER: THE MAN WITH A TASK

BY

JAMES BARNES

KITCHENER of Khartoum, "K. of K." as he is familiarly referred to by the officers who have known him and served under him, has been all along the sphinx of the South African campaign. He is the man from whose lips nothing has been heard—about whom little has been known; his plans were secret, his movements mysterious. During the early weeks that followed Lord Roberts's arrival with the English army, "K. of K." was more or less of a myth. He was talked about and criticised, he was complimented and complained of (for he upset a great many arrangements, especially in regard to the army transportation facilities; he broke rules and remade them). He was reported here one day, and there the next, and no one saw him, but his influence was felt none the less, and the army moved at last. The man who had spent seven years in preparation for the march up the Nile was called upon to make arrangements for the prolonged invasion of an enemy's country, for the feeding of a huge army miles from its base, and with the probability of continued interruption of the lines of communication. It was a task never before attempted on so grand a scale. That the army was able to start and keep moving, and was fed at all, reflects the greatest credit upon the thoroughly trained and equipped Army Serve Corps; but the methods employed reflect as much credit upon the controlling mind, and that means Kitchener, chief of staff.

Almost every one is familiar with the pictures of him that have appeared from time to time in the illustrated papers. The bold, fearless eyes, the short nose, the aggressiveness and determination of his expression, leave a strong impression. He appears to be handsome—a hero-looking soldier. I shall never forget the first time that I saw him. I was a bit startled. I had preconceived him as something so very different. He was tall, about six feet two or three, his figure ungainly, and his shoulders sloped; he slouched in his gait as he walked in long, knee-bending strides. He was a much older man than his pictures made him appear to be. His face—it may have been the Egyptian sun—was brick red. It was full of little lines, and his prominent steel-gray eyes had a peculiar expression; one of them—I have forgotten whether it was the left or the right—had a habit of roving by itself, while the other transfixed you with a cold and piercing glare; to a certain extent, the eyes are characteristic of the man, for Kitchener is known to be able to see things near by and things far off, at the same time. He was interviewing a Kaffir runner, through an interpreter, and the poor black was badly frightened; small blame to him, for not long afterwards I had the same experience, which may or may not be worth telling. In a minor degree I felt as the Kaffir did that day.

It was while the 11th Division, with which headquarters travelled, was encamped at Natal Spruit, just outside the gates of Johannesburg. I had ridden over from the left of the line and was making my report to Lord Stanley, the Press Censor, when "K. of K." caught sight of me. It was evident, from his first question, that he took me for a despatch writer or some one having official connection in the army. He came forward and, without preamble, launched a number of questions in quick succession, while that "game" eye bored me through and through, and as an old corporal described a similar situation, "All the soldier in me went to my finger tips and I could scarce keep my hand from my hat brim." The questions were so well put that they required but "yes" or "no" in answer.

"Where did *you* come from?"

"From the left, sir."

"Did you go by those hills?"

"Yes, sir."

"See any Boers?"

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Photographed by Dinwiddie.

LORD KITCHENER OF KHARTOUM.

An unusual portrait (enlarged from a snap-shot) showing the general smiling.

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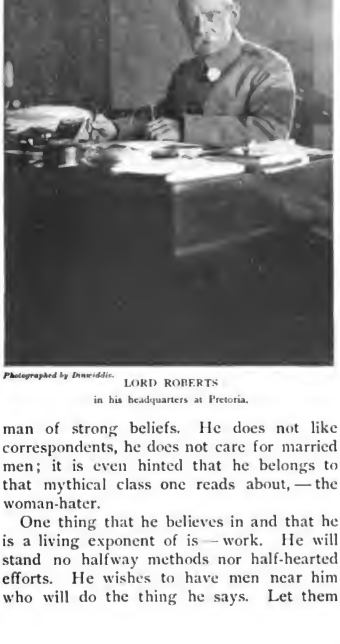
"No, sir."

When he had ascertained what little information I could give, he ended where most people would have begun.

"Who are you?" he asked bluntly.

"Correspondent."

That ended it; he made no remarks about correspondents or the value of my news; his eye lifted, he turned on his heel and walked away. That was my first and only meeting with him but I saw him upon many occasions afterward, and from men who had served with him I learned something of his character. He is a man of prejudices and a



Photographed by Downiddie.

LORD ROBERTS
in his headquarters at Pretoria.

man of strong beliefs. He does not like correspondents, he does not care for married men; it is even hinted that he belongs to that mythical class one reads about, — the woman-hater.

One thing that he believes in and that he is a living exponent of is — work. He will stand no halfway methods nor half-hearted efforts. He wishes to have men near him who will do the thing he says. Let them fail, he has little mercy, and listens to no excuses. Up to the time of the entry into Pretoria, Kitchener had had but one or two opportunities of military command, the expedition after the rebels at Prieska in the Colony and the fight on the Modder, and for the doings of that day there has been much criticism. It was the first battle of Parderberg, on the 19th of February, where, next to Magersfontein, was the heaviest loss among the British troops. It has been said by some that the slaughter was needless; that the sending of the troops against the Boers in the river-bed was unnecessary. The open plain over which they advanced was swept by a concentrated fire, but time and again the regiments were ordered forward. There were no correspondents present at this battle; Lord Roberts himself was absent, and we must look at it from Kitchener's standpoint. Information had been brought that a large force under De La Rey was coming to Cronje's relief, from the direction of the Free State capital. It was necessary to stop the joining of these forces. Cronje must be cornered, and Kitchener did not hesitate at the prospect of the loss of life. Soldiers to him are merely pawns in the game. Slaughter does not shock him. Death may be made the means to an end; and yet I have heard it said that he is not a hard man.

On the best of authority I am informed that he was opposed to the burning of farms, although in a great many cases it seems to have been necessary owing to military exigencies. Yet he could hardly be accused of being an extreme humanitarian; he wastes no kindly glances. However he may look at things in general, he has a habit of going at the root of any matter and digging at it. As one of his officers said of him: "He goes to work with a spade, not a pruning knife." He is careless of criticism; he allows no one to interfere; he likes to play his own hand; nothing discourages him. He has no nerves and few sympathies; his ambitions always seem to be centred in the thing nearest him. One thing he exacts is obedience. Certainly no English officer that I have ever met would think of questioning an order. For though "K. of K." is not beloved or even popular, he is trusted and respected by rank and file.

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LORD KITCHENER AT THE PRETORIA RAILROAD STATION.

When the Field Marshal left him to work what has proved to be one of the hardest problems of the war, there was not a doubt in the mind of a single officer that he had chosen well, for the problem was no easy one, although it has been called a huge "police job."

No one a stranger to the Boer country can conceive how it lends itself to guerilla warfare. It took a good part of our little American regular army and a fair number of Mexican troops two years, more or less, to finish off "the Kid's" band of Apaches, and during this time the chief crossed the Rio Grande a half score of times. Part of the Raiders' land in South Africa is like Texas, New Mexico, and Arizona. The length of time the irreconcilables can remain in the field depends upon their supplies of ammunition and food, multiplied by their capacity for not being cornered. In the meantime the Colony is waiting breathless, and on it is settled one of Kitchener's cold gray eyes. English and Dutch are waiting to see what he will do.

His plans have hardly yet been fairly tried. Reconciliation enters into them, but personally he has no charm of manner that attracts others to him. He does not rely upon proclamations or propaganda, except that of force; at this, he is a master. He is just, but inexorable, and before the settlement commences the effect of his strong hand will be visible in the running to earth of the roving commandoes and the isolated bands of guerillas that now are startling the world and winning plaudits by their boldness.

Kitchener has great respect for the prowess of General De Wet. I should like to be present at their meeting, for meet they must, before many months are over, if the brave and stubborn Boer leader is not killed in one of his forays. That he may live is the expressed wish of all the English officers and of Kitchener himself.

"K. of K." is reported to have said, "Give me one man like De Wet, and I will send home one third of the army." And De Wet is quoted as having spoken as follows: "I will give Lord Roberts three years to catch me. I will give Kitchener three months, and Lord Methuen all his life."

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ILLINOIS STEEL WORKS, SOUTH CHICAGO.

THE GREAT EMPIRE BY THE LAKES

THE INDUSTRIAL CENTRE OF THE WORLD—THE RICHEST YIELD OF NATURAL WEALTH AND THE GREATEST TRIUMPHS IN HANDLING IT—TRAFFIC TO TWO OCEANS—EDUCATIONAL AND POLITICAL DEPARTURES THAT HINT OF REVOLUTIONS

BY

FREDERIC C. HOWE

AMERICA is just completing her decennial inventory — drawing off a trial balance of her resources, and casting up an appraisal of her present stock in trade. And each recurring census is a cause of new wonder and amazement; for, however much we may deal in hyperbole, the figures are likely to outstrip the flight of the imagination.

The West is a vanishing place. It has ever been, as some one has said, "a mere stage of development." The East encroaches constantly on it, and the centre of population moves toward the Mississippi.

But the West has a spirit and influence of its own in our development; "an attitude of mind" in industry, commerce, education, religion, politics, and sociology; "an attitude of mind," which from the conservatism of the eastern seaboard moves on a crescendo line to the sort of radicalism of the open prairies which is inclined to path-finding methods, and, pioneerlike, feels that the present owes no obligation to the past. Possibly this was what was meant by the frequent assertions of four years ago that the West distrusts the East. It is possibly quite as true to say that the East does not understand the West.

For a century our faces have been turned to the Western sea. We have filled up the waste places of the earth. But never before was the saying of Bishop Berkeley more true than today. For we are on the threshold of a development which is to make America the world-power in industry, commerce, and finance.

The centre of industry has shifted, and the region of the Great Lakes, by virtue of the bounty of nature, is to be the home of the new development. These lakes, which extend from the confines of New England to the state of Minnesota, contain more than half of the fresh-water area of the globe. Their coast-lines have a combined length in the United States of 3075 miles. About the western and southern shores of Lake Superior are found the low mountain ranges which produce upward of seventy-five per cent of the iron ore of the United States. From the Marquette, the Mesabi, the Menominee, the Vermillion, and the Gogebic ranges 18,250,000 gross tons of ore were mined and shipped during the year 1899. This was against 9,000,000 tons in 1890, 2,250,000 tons in 1883, and 1447 tons in 1855. This indicates in a measure the development of the industry. The mines are located a short distance from the shores of the lake, and in most instances consist of mountainous masses of ore, apparently of eruptive origin, which are mined in the Mesabi range by the removal of a few

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feet of surface gravel and the use of dredging scoops which operate in the virgin ore. The mines are largely owned by the iron-manufacturing interests of Pennsylvania, Ohio, and Illinois. The great ports of shipment are Duluth, Ashland, Two Harbors, and Marquette.

The past two years have witnessed the greatest development the lake region has known. This has come about through the advent on a large scale of the Carnegie and Rockefeller interests in the transportation business. This was also coincident with the deepening of the waterways, which rendered possible the construction of boats five hundred feet in length, of seven to eight thousand tons burden. At the same time there has been a great improvement in the apparatus for unloading vessels, which effects a saving of fifty per cent in time. The Rockefeller fleet, constructed and purchased during the past two years, is the largest single fleet carrying the American flag on any waters.

Probably the greatest industrial phenomenon of the past ten years, unless it be the trust development, is the consummation of the dreams of far-sighted business men, by which the iron mines of Lake Superior have been linked with the coal and coke fields of Pennsylvania. This has led to the tremendous development of the iron and steel industry in the Pittsburg and Cleveland districts. Human labor has been reduced to an insignificant item in all the processes, from the extraction of the crude ore from the earth, to the production of the finished product at the furnace nearly a thousand miles away. Railroads have been built from Pittsburg to Lake Erie, as have immense docks and cavernous iron steamships, as large as ocean liners, designed almost exclusively for the transportation of ore, coal, and grain. All



IN THE LAKE SUPERIOR IRON REGION.

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the essentials of production, including the mines, steamships, railroads, docks, and furnaces, have been combined under one hand. At the present time Carnegie, the American Steel & Wire Company, and the National Steel Company own their own boats and do at least a part of their own carrying business. These companies also own their own mines.

Coincident with this consolidation there has occurred a revolution in industrial methods before which earlier achievements sink into insignificance. A few decades ago the blast furnace was an enlarged blacksmith shop, and the finished product, whether a steel rail or horseshoe nail, was largely the result of manual labor. By present processes, from the moment the steam scoop, handling tons of native ore, touches the soil in Minnesota or Michigan until the raw material issues as a hundred-pound steel rail on the banks of the Monongahela River, the element of human labor is scarce appreciable. Trains in the Superior district are loaded by steam scoops. At the docks the cars are unloaded into bins or pockets. From these pockets, ships of five to seven thousand gross tons' capacity are loaded in a few hours' time, through chute attachments running into the holds of the vessels. In the Mesabi range a half dozen men will mine five thousand tons of ore in a few hours. An ore vessel is loaded almost without the use of pickax or shovel. Gravitation does the work formerly done by man. On the lower lakes the vessels are unloaded in a few hours' time by hoisting-devices or clam-like scoops which will do the work of sixty men and transport ten tons of ore in a single clasp of the scoop. Steel cars with a capacity of sixty tons are unloaded at the furnaces by immense cranes which pick the cars clear from the tracks, transport them to an ore pile, and dump them as simply and easily, and with as much precision, as if they were but buckets of sand. The earth is tapped, and genii-like enginery, with man's hand on the throttle, turns out the finished product.

And as if by the prevision of nature, the vast coal regions of western Pennsylvania, Ohio, and West Virginia furnish return cargoes to the upper lakes. These return cargoes greatly reduce freight rates. The coal tonnage of the lakes for the year 1899 amounted to 9,000,000 tons, which was taken from the bituminous coal fields of these states and transported to its destination, by the aid of the same sort of machinery as is used in the handling of ore.

Inferior only in importance to the iron ore and coal industry is that of the copper mines of the upper Peninsula of Michigan. The long, projecting promontory on the southern shore of Lake Superior, known as Keweenaw Point, is dotted with copper mines, of which the Calumet and Hecla is the chief.

From these mines are extracted millions of dollars' worth of native copper every year. This region supplies a large part of the world's copper, and the mines yield fabulous returns to those who anticipated the future of this industry. The stock of the Calumet and Hecla mine, of the par value of twenty-five dollars per share, is now quoted at seven hundred and sixty dollars per share. Upon this stock but twelve dollars and fifty cents has ever been paid in. And some of the iron mines in the Lake Superior ranges show a commercial standing only less remarkable.

From the watershed of the Great Lakes, moreover, is taken a large part of the lumber supply for the eastern and central states, while to the south of Lake Erie, in western Pennsylvania, Ohio, West Virginia, and Indiana, are the great oil fields, which supply not only America, but the world, with petroleum. Salt in immense quantities is secured from the region about Cleveland, while the building-stones of the upper lakes are among the most beautiful that we have.

Nature has been lavish of her riches in this Great Lakes region. She has created here an empire richer than that of the Incas. For while the precious metals are not found, those which furnish the sinews of modern commerce abound in quantities to supply the world.

The dividends of one copper mine in the Lake Superior district, whose capital stock is but $2,500,000, amounted in the year 1899 to $10,000,000. In 1898 the same mine declared dividends of $5,000,000. Some of the iron mines of the same district distribute the total capital value of their mines in dividends each year. And during the past ten years hundreds of persons have been enriched from the iron, coal, copper, oil, and gas fields of this region.

Could these bounties have been preserved

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WHALEBACKS.

to the state, the problems of finance would have been easy of solution.

The great power tunnel by which the forces of Niagara are utilized for the generation of power, as well as a similar power canal in construction at Sault Ste. Marie, Michigan, evidence again the way nature is forced to do man's work while he stands by. And the secret of the phenomenal development of this region lies in this fact. It has been brought about by the harnessing of force and the utilization of man's ingenuity and the engineer's skill. From mine to mill a thousand miles away, with two breakages in carriage, is as simple, if not a simpler process than a like breakage in freight at the Hudson River. The element of labor cost in a ton of ore from mine to furnace has been reduced to insignificance. It amounts to but a few cents. The forces of steam, hydraulics, pneumatics, and electricity have achieved this result.

One of the great, if not the great, problem of the last generation has been the reduction of transportation charges. By this cheapening of carriage cost space has been annihilated. To us this problem was basic. Our distances are so great. How well we have succeeded is seen in the low railroad and steamboat freight rates. On the Great Lakes the charges for carrying a ton of freight one mile are less than one-tenth of one cent. Railroad freights in competition are about four times as much. To-day the eyes of European engineers are turned on the transportation systems of America. But transportation on the lakes includes something more than delivery from port to port. It involves the transfer from railroad to boat and from boat to railroad. And these processes have become as much a part of lake transportation as the carriage.



A TYPICAL RIVER FREIGHTER.

In this respect inventive ingenuity has kept pace with our demands, and transfers at the docks are now accomplished by immense machinery, which seems to operate with almost human intelligence.

The real significance of the Great Lakes from an industrial and commercial standpoint can only be grasped after having been seen. In any space description would prove inadequate; while statistics convey little or no impression when expressed in seven and eight figures. But some of the remarkable things about this great empire by the lakes may be mentioned. The freight net tonnage of the Sault Ste. Marie River in 1899 amounted to over 25,000,000 tons, as against 1,500,000 tons in 1881. This freight was valued at $281,000,000. The size of this tonnage can be appreciated better when it is stated that it is three times that of the Suez Canal. The registered tonnage of 1899 amounted to 22,000,000 tons. The iron ore tonnage of the Great Lakes



A TYPICAL HARBOR SCENE.
The Carnegie Company Dock at Conneaut, Ohio.

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for 1900 will equal 20,000,000 tons, or sufficient to load 1,000,000 cars of the old variety. There is more cargo tonnage passes through the Detroit River during the seven months of the open season than the combined Atlantic and Pacific oceans import and export tonnage for the twelve months of the year. More vessels arrive at and leave Chicago annually than any other port in America. And the combined ports of Duluth and West Superior stand second in this respect.

The various tonnage of the city of Cleveland, with its manifold industries, has exceeded that of Liverpool, and the Cleveland district is, with the exception of the Clyde, the largest shipbuilding point in the world. The amount of grain transported on the lakes in 1898 amounted to 350,000,000 bushels.

It is through the waterways of the Great Lakes that a large portion of the grain of the world is carried. By reason of the low water freight charges, the prairies of the West are able to lay their products down in the European market at a price otherwise impossible. The significance of these great waterways, not only to the states of the West, but to the civilization of the world, cannot be overstated.

Some time ago Mr. Carnegie asserted that northern Ohio was the natural industrial centre of the world for the iron and steel industries. Time is confirming this prophecy. At no other known spot on the earth's surface can iron and coal (the elements which enter into the steel and iron industry) be assembled so cheaply as on the shores of the lower Great Lakes. And it is to this point that the industrial supremacy of the world will pass.

This fact is in a measure borne out by the recent census. Around the lakes is a line of great cities, whose population is as follows: Buffalo, 352,000; Cleveland, 382,000; Toledo, 132,000; Detroit, 286,000; Chicago, 1,699,000; Milwaukee, 285,000. And the percentage of growth of these cities is illustrative of the industrial advantages of this region. The rates of their increase for the decade just closed are as follows: Buffalo 37 per cent, Cleveland 46, Toledo 61, Detroit 38, Chicago 54, and Milwaukee 39. And this is merely a repetition of what took place during the previous ten years. From 1880 to 1890 the most rapid growth of the country was in this region.

At the same time the growth of the river towns has fallen off. St. Louis gained 27 per cent in the decade just closed, and 28 per cent in the decade before. Cincinnati gained 9 per cent this time and 16 per cent before. St. Paul increased 22 per cent and Minneapolis 23 per cent in the decade just closing. The seaboard cities have manifested an increase as follows: New York 38 per cent, Philadelphia, 23, Boston 25, Baltimore 17, San Francisco 14 per cent, and New Orleans 18 per cent. These evidences from the census indicate that industry and population follow natural economic conditions in a very demonstrable way, and that the elements of transportation, fuel, and supplies are controlling factors in the world's development.

Such are some of the realizations of the past decade. They have been achieved without an appreciation of their magnitude or of their influence on the civilization of the world.

And far-seeing men of this region are now casting their eyes toward the markets of the world. Plans have been matured to place the coal fields of Ohio, West Virginia, and Pennsylvania in immediate touch with European ports. Within a short time a fleet of boats will carry coal between Newport News and Europe. The former point will be connected with the interior by a railroad. This will mean a fuel economy to European cities of from one dollar to two dollars a ton. One may safely say that the next generation will see the coal fields and iron mines of America supplying the European consumer, much as the wheat fields of the West now supply the English artisan. Within the next year and a half it is freely expected that American ore will be landed in the Clyde. To-day America is "carrying coals to Newcastle."

Already steel canal boats carrying cargoes of two hundred tons pass through the Erie Canal from the west to New York, while the completion of the Canadian deep waterways, with a depth of fourteen feet through the Welland Canal, permits the sending to the seaboard of vessels carrying over three thousand tons of freight. To-day the same vessels engage in the carrying traffic of the lakes in the summer, and the Atlantic coastwise traffic in the winter.

The lakes, moreover, are an integral link in the carrying trade of the Northern Pacific

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LOOKING OVER THE HARBOR OF DULUTH.

Fleet of vessels laid up for the winter in the harbor; Mr. J. J. Hill's yacht lies beside them.

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WHAT MOST OF THE GREAT LAKES REGION LOOKED LIKE A CENTURY AGO.

Railroad, which is constructing two monster Pacific steamships to engage in the Japanese trade. The opening up of the Chicago drainage canal recalls plans for a deep waterway from the Great Lakes to the Gulf, while engineering plans are being discussed for raising the level of the lakes by a dam across the Niagara River, which will increase the depth of the lakes and render the Erie Canal more serviceable. At the present time vessels can be constructed on the Great Lakes cheaper than any place else in the world. It is not an idle dream to anticipate that within a generation the carrying trade of the world will be shifted from England to America, and that the shipyards on the lakes will be accepting contracts from Europe.

This great industrial and commercial development has brought in its train great fortunes, with all the evidences of wealth, refinement, and culture. The interior cities have passed through an evolution not unlike that of the Italian cities of the Middle Ages. First an age of industrial competition, then an age of wealth, refinement, and ease, built upon the fortunes previously acquired. Such is the evolution of America. Such an evolution one daily sees in the Western city.



LOOKING OVER CHICAGO, 1901.

This has been accompanied by a development in education and the humaner arts; a development which, if it does not correspond to the great material achievements of the period, is in a sense reflected by it. During the past decade the primary and secondary schools have increased their percentages of enrolment, while enlightened methods have been operating with a free hand upon the traditions of the schoolroom, traditions which had become fixed and crystallized from lack of criticism. The Western people have ever been jealous of the public schools, and have



IN SOUTH WATER STREET, CHICAGO, 1901.

insisted that they shall be free from the spoilsman's influence. Public expenditure for these schools is liberal. And if tendencies can be distinguished, as they probably can to some extent, there has been an inclination to break away from hard and fast educational methods and to combine greater usefulness with more humane ends.

Herbert Spencer has said that "to prepare us for complete living is the function which education has to discharge;" and Ruskin said, "We do not educate a man by telling him what he knew not, but by making him what he was not." While these ideals are far from realization, and while it would be idle to assume that anything more than a beginning had been made toward their achievement, still the public schools of the West are working as fast as ordinary conservatism and political machinery will permit, towards these ends. This change in point of view is seen

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in new school buildings, constructed, not like barren-faced factories, designed apparently to enclose the maximum amount of stall space within four walls, but with the idea that the school should suggest the home and be in a sense a continuation of it; that it should be beautified within by the masterpieces of human art, and surrounded without by playgrounds where games and social sports may be taught. Gymnasiums are being provided as well as breathing spots for children. At the same time the curriculum is being modified. Manual training as a preparation for a trade as well as for the development of skill and dexterity has found a place. Along with this development has gone an appreciation of music, the domestic arts, and gymnastics, which have taken their place alongside of the three R's. With this has gone a rapid development of the kindergarten system, day nurseries, and children's playgrounds.

The past decade has also witnessed a remarkable growth in the institutions of higher education about the lakes. The state universities of Michigan, Wisconsin, and Minnesota are taking high rank, while those of Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois have profited by the enthusiasm for higher education which has characterized all of the Western states. This period has also seen the foundation of the University of Chicago and Western Reserve University of Cleveland by private endowment. The attendance at the University of Michigan increased from 521 to 1534 in the eighteen years prior to 1900. Indiana University has increased its attendance fourfold, and the University of Wisconsin threefold. These statistics include proper college students only. And the state institutions are exercising a tremendous influence on their respective communities. They form experiment stations in the sciences. In a sense, too, they exert an influence in political matters. There is, moreover, an openness of mind about the state universities of the West as regards educational methods, which is having a profound influence upon higher education in the United States even in the far East.

As an aid to education in the minds of modern educators is the public library, and the growth and development of these institutions of popular learning have been continuous and rapid. They bring the school to the home, and are looked upon as an adjunct to the teacher's work. To-day, we find branch libraries in the public schools, in college settlements, and even in factories and shops; the shelves thrown open to the public without fear of spoliation. Travelling libraries have been instituted by state legislation in Ohio, Wisconsin, and possibly elsewhere, by which small quantities of selected books may be secured by townships or villages without cost from the State Library. Children's tastes are studied. Bulletin boards and pictures are displayed to arrest the attention; while everything is done to make the library an educational force of the highest order. How different this spirit is from that of a generation ago, when library books were securely locked behind a glass case, and the librarian looked upon himself as a custodian appointed to preserve the books from use or injury, and his office as a berth created for personal ease or research.

The decade just closing has seen a number of beautiful private libraries founded, including the gift of John Crerar of $3,000,000, and of W. N. Newberry of $2,000,000, both of Chicago. In addition to these, Chicago has recently constructed a public library costing $2,000,000, located on the lake front, while Milwaukee has just completed one costing $500,000. A library building is in contemplation at Cleveland, while the public library of Buffalo is noted for its efficiency.

The influences at work in the realms of religion and philanthropy are probably less demonstrable by statistics than almost anything else. They are among the "unseen" phenomena of society. During the past decade in the West there has probably been a diminution in church-going, but an increase in Christian doing; a quickened consciousness of the obligations of this life, rather than concern as to the life hereafter; an appreciation of the obligations of man to man, with a belief that this involves man's obligation to God. Mankind has a new interest in his neighbor, and philanthropy, instead of giving hostages to the life to come, is endeavoring to make life endurable to the present. The responsibilities of urban life are bringing an appreciation of its many possibilities. Private generosity has established hospitals, kindergartens, playgrounds, vacation schools, and social settlements, and has interested itself in

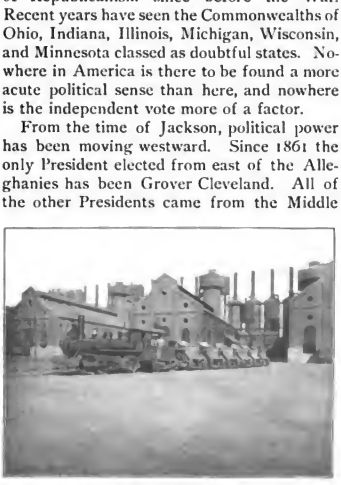
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the betterment of the industrial environment of factories and workshops. And with this there has come a new dignity in pleasure. Man no longer is expected to live for work alone, but recreation is recognized as requiring his consideration.

The city of Cleveland, through private philanthropy coupled with a commendable public spirit, has developed a park and boulevard system, which, when completed, will completely encircle the city, and render accessible to every citizen the enlivening joy of nature, while an enlightened public spirit has provided for an architectural grouping of municipal, county, and federal buildings along the shore of Lake Erie magnificent in its possibilities. The city of Chicago is also reclaiming the lake front to artistic uses, and is projecting a park on the lake by means of which the railroads, which now occupy this frontage, will be effaced from view.

Along with the evolution of industry, education, and religion there has gone a change in the political situation. The region of the Northwest Territory has been a stronghold of Republicanism since before the War. Recent years have seen the Commonwealths of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, and Minnesota classed as doubtful states. Nowhere in America is there to be found a more acute political sense than here, and nowhere is the independent vote more of a factor.

From the time of Jackson, political power has been moving westward. Since 1861 the only President elected from east of the Alleghanies has been Grover Cleveland. All of the other Presidents came from the Middle



BLAST FURNACES.
Showing train of molten metal ladles.



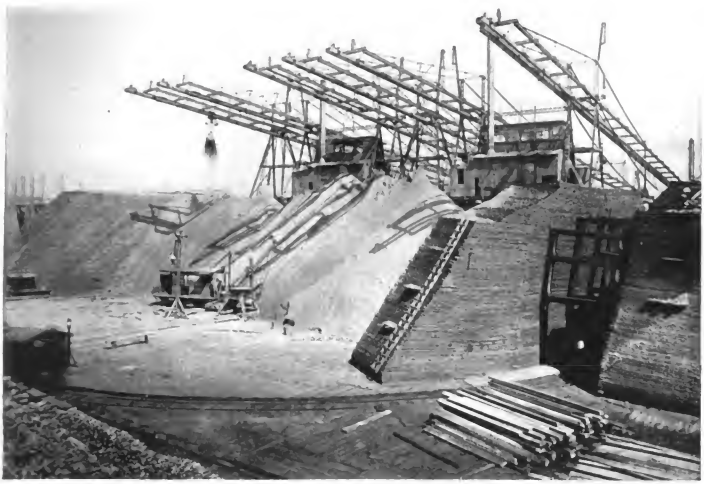
INSIDE A STEEL RAIL MILL.

West, the states of the Great Lakes basin. To-day the West is dominant in politics. To-morrow it will be articulate in its power. The reapportionment based on the census of 1900 will still further increase its power in the electoral college as well as in Congress.

This political movement has been accompanied with a change in point of view. Some term the feeling of the West, Socialism. The West says it is but an effort to reclaim and preserve to the state the means by which the largest degree of self-help and individualism is possible. It cannot always see the difference between a river and harbor appropriation as a means for facilitating commerce, and the erection of grain elevators and storage warehouses for the same purpose. It cannot distinguish between steamship subsidies for the promotion of the shipping industry, and the regulation and utilization of transportation facilities by any means which will best subserve the public weal.

The lower lakes region is in a sense a political storm centre. To the tariff policy of the Republican party, Ohio and Pennsylvania are indebted for their great protected industries. But of late Ohio has contained a radical political element. In 1899 Mayor Samuel Jones of Toledo, familiarly known as "Golden Rule Jones," was defeated for the mayoralty nomination by the machinations of the Republican politicians. Thereupon he ran as an independent candidate on a socialistic platform of "universal brotherhood," municipal ownership, shorter hours of labor, direct employment of labor by the city, and the state control of quasi-public corporations, and was elected

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ORE DOCKS—UNLOADING THE STEAMERS.

by a majority in excess of the combined vote of the regular Republican and Democratic nominees. He was subsequently placed in nomination for governor by petition and polled over thirty thousand votes in the city of Cleveland, more than the combined votes of the Republican and Democratic nominees. In the state at large, he polled over one hundred thousand votes. His vote was in a sense exceptional and due to local and personal causes.

It was a manifestation, however, of the coming political independence of party demands in state and local matters. It was another evidence, moreover, of the growing insistence on the part of the voter for live issues rather than meaningless phrases, as well as the fact that the issues of the day are social and industrial and to be treated apart from national affairs.

The same sort of political unrest has been even more manifest in Michigan. In this state Governor Hazen S. Pingree has been for years a power in the local politics of Detroit, where he served for seven consecutive years as mayor, as well as in the state at large, where he has served as governor since 1896. His career has demonstrated the power of business men in municipal politics, and the possibility of reclaiming the American city and placing it upon a high plane of executive efficiency. His experience has also proven the capacity of the individual man, and the weakness of the excuse, so frequently offered by those who refuse to participate in political affairs, that the individual can do nothing by his protests. His work has been an endeavor to be just to capital as such, but at the same time to demand that its obligations shall be performed in proportion to its privileges. His position has brought him into conflict with the street railroads, gas, electric lighting, telephone, and similar interests in Detroit, and the railroads, express companies, mines, and other special interests of the state at large.

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THE LAKE FLEET LAID UP BY THE OBSTRUCTION OF NAVIGATION.

Most widely known by reason of his "potato patch" scheme, by which the poor of Detroit were given an opportunity to employ themselves upon the vacant city lots, and at least raise potatoes for their sustenance, he improved and bettered the city until it is the most beautiful on the chain of Great Lakes, and freest from reproach of any American city, Washington alone excepted. His work has been marked by a constant and unswerving purpose to make the city, the enforced home of a quarter of a million people, a place of more comfortable living. Gas, under his administration was reduced from $1.50 to $1 per thousand feet; an independent telephone system placed in conduits was promoted by which rates were reduced from $72 and $150 a year to $25 and $40; a conduit system for electric wires was started, while three-cent fare upon the street railways was secured by the promotion and incorporation of the Detroit Railway. A municipal electric-lighting plant was established, by which a saving to the city is effected, it is claimed, of $80,000 per year.

As governor, the interests of the wage-worker and farmer engaged his attention. On the subject of taxation of quasi-public corporations he came into conflict with the transportation and transmission companies, as well as with the mine owners of the northern part of the state. He has been a hearty advocate of municipal ownership of all quasi-public corporations, and secured the passage of an act by the legislature empowering Detroit to acquire the existing street railway lines. This act was declared unconstitutional by the Supreme Court, and the country was denied the opportunity of witnessing the operation of a publicly owned street railroad under rather advantageous conditions.

In all of his work Governor Pingree has had behind him the great mass of the common people, who supported him in all his issues, even when he was deserted by the political leaders and those who controlled the party.

And this growing independence of party is one of the most encouraging features of the political situation in the Middle West. Party regularity, like the old Bourbon cry of Legitimacy, is losing its potency, and independent candidates on independent issues are coming to be welcomed in local affairs. This spirit has been fostered and developed by the organization of independent bodies of citizens in

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the form of the Municipal Voters' League of Chicago and the Municipal Association of Cleveland. These organizations stand for merit and honesty first, and party incidentally. They are a standing protest against the hollowness of party issues in local campaigns, and form a means for the protection of the community against corruption in municipal affairs. The Municipal Voters' League of Chicago found the City Council, but a few years ago, in the possession of a ring nominated, elected, and controlled by the street railroad and other corporate interests. By the sheer force of honest statement and the publication of biographical facts, the character and tone of the Council has been radically changed for the better. Similar associations exist in Milwaukee, Minneapolis, and St. Paul, where they form centres of independent protest on the part of public-spirited citizens willing to assume their share of the public burdens.

In respect of awakened political interest on the part of well-to-do citizens, the change of the past ten years has been remarkable; the next ten years give promise of being revolutionary, and the issues within our cities are to be industrial and social, relating to the well-being of the community, issues which will be made by the demands of the public, not by party leaders.

It has been intimated that the forthcoming census would show that the centre of population, which has been steadily moving westward for more than a century, had come to a halt, and that the final figures would indicate a slight movement to the east; that the tide of empire had ceased to flow towards the Occident, and had become for the time being stationary. This is certainly true so far as industry and commerce are concerned. And the century upon which we are entering is to be marked by one of those movements by which the region about the lakes will take its place in that evolution of the Western world by which the control of the world's commerce first centred in the Italian cities in the Middle Ages, when all the wealth of the Orient passed through their gates; then passed to Spain, owing to the golden influx of the precious metals from the discovery of America; then to Holland, and later to Great Britain, which country has enjoyed the commercial supremacy of the world during the past century, owing to the industrial revolution following upon the use of steam in manufacture and its application to transportation.



SUNSET ON LAKE SUPERIOR.

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Photographed for The World's Work by Gertrude Käsebier

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CHARLES G. BUSH.

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A MASTER CARTOONIST

MR. CHARLES GREEN BUSH, after long and especially brilliant service as a cartoonist on the New York papers, has come to be generally recognized as our most effective master of the cartoon. It was without set purpose and not until middle life that he entered a field in which he is now an acknowledged master. He was born in Boston in 1842. His father being United States consul at Hong Kong, a portion of his childhood was passed in China, but he was a pupil at the Boston Latin School when Phillips Brooks was a teacher in that institution, and later he studied for three years at the United States Naval Academy. He studied drawing and painting in his native city under William Rimmer, and among his 'prentice efforts were sets of illustrations for "The Scarlet Letter" and "The House of the Seven Gables." He removed to New York in 1870 and found employment with the Harpers, for whom he illustrated De Mille's "The Dodge Family Abroad" and Muhlbach's "Frederick the Great." After that he turned to another field, and for several years drew in both serious and comic vein for *Harper's Weekly*. One of Mr. Bush's associates in the Harper drawing-room was Michael Woolf, for whom he conceived a friendship which ended only with the latter's death. "Woolf," says his old comrade, "will be best remembered in time to come as a feeling, sympathetic, and exquisitely humorous depicter of child life, but his appeal was always to the intellect, and not a few of the acute and bitter social caricatures contributed by him five-and-twenty years ago to *Harper's Weekly* were in the direct tradition of Hogarth, Gilray, and Rowlandson, and drawn besides with the simplicity and the apparent absence of effort without which the pen-and-ink work of the cleverest social satirist falls to the ground."



"AS I WENT MARCHING THROUGH G-E-E-O-RGIA!"
(Mr. Bush's first cartoon.)



TOMMY ATKINS AND HIS COMMANDER.

Mr. Bush went to Paris in 1875 and for three years studied under Léon Bonnat, whom he is not alone in declaring the greatest of living portrait painters. He came back to

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THE BOSS: "JUST A LITTLE BIT OFF THE TOP."

New York in 1879, and during the next decade was mainly employed with commissions from the Harpers and other publishers. All this time, however, he had been feeling his way, and it was quite by chance that he hit upon the branch of art offering the freest and happiest play for his gifts. One day in the fall of 1889 the thought occurred to him that a visit David B. Hill had lately made to Georgia held out an inviting subject for humorous pictorial treatment. He drew a picture of Hill executing a new march through Georgia, and submitted his drawing to the editor of



"SAY, WHAT A BLOOMIN' CHUMP BILL TWEED WAS!"

the *Evening Telegram*. Its prompt acceptance was followed by orders for other cartoons, and soon Mr. Bush was invited to attach himself regularly to Mr. Bennett's



"AND YOU'LL GET ALL THAT'S A' COMING TO YOU."

staff. He did so, drawing first for the *Telegram*, afterward for the *Herald*, and finally for both papers. His drawings from the first caught the attention and prompted the praise



MACK: "SAY, BILL, HOW I WISH I HAD YOU IN ENGLAND."

of the discerning, and when, at the end of seven years, he transferred his services to the *World*, he carried with him the well-earned reputation of the most gifted and best-equipped of our native political draughtsmen.

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The number of Mr. Bush's cartoons now mounts into the thousands, and there is not one of them that is commonplace. Results of this kind are little less than surprising when one calls to mind the conditions under which the artist does his work. Tenniel of *Punch* contents himself with the production of a single drawing each week, or half a hundred in the course of a year. Mr. Bush draws one, and sometimes two, cartoons every day, and this has been his rate of production for the better part of ten years. Sometimes, indeed, he draws three of them in a single day, and yet, to study a pile of his drawings, covering, for instance, his output



THE REAL ARTICLE.



HIS RUNNING MATE.

during any given fortnight, is to be impelled to fresh surprise and admiration, not only on account of their wide range, but by reason also of the directness and simplicity of the composition and the technical excellence of the workmanship. He is always able to "keep it up"; and though many of his cartoons deal with strictly local themes, his daily appeal being to a constituency made up chiefly of the people of New York and its vicinity, his work at such times is not less brilliant or powerful than it is when he is called to comment upon topics of national scope and interest.

The reproductions of Mr. Bush's drawings here brought together confirm the truth that the political cartoonist is born and not made. Their author very naturally deplores the haste under which he is compelled to draw, and is not wholly wrong in the belief that, with such leisure as the men enjoy who work for weekly publications, he might think out his designs more carefully and execute them with more telling effect. He takes his calling seriously, however, and has no living superior in applying the pictorial method to the explanation of a principle, the enforcement of a doctrine, or the exposure of a wrong. His habitual mood is a genial one, and his cartoons are never without a sly and winning touch of humor.

The cartoonist is now counted an essential



WHO LICKED SPAIN?

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THE DON: "THAT'S ONE AHEAD OF ME, OLD MAN!"

member of the staff of almost every great daily newspaper. This is true of Boston, Philadelphia, Washington, Pittsburg, St. Louis, Detroit, Chicago, St. Paul, New Orleans, and San Francisco, and even in many of the smaller cities are to be found men of much keenness and no little artistic skill who are helping through the cartoon to shape public opinion. Indeed, there is gradually developing in this country a school of caricature distinctively American in spirit and native to the soil. The need of an appreciative audience which once hampered even the ablest of the earlier men has been supplied.

As the sharp editorial paragraph has come to be regarded as of quite as great importance



AN OBJECT LESSON.

as the leading editorial, because it conveys its lesson quickly, so the cartoon carries the same message as soon as a man opens his paper. When it touches the most important subject of the day's news, as it ought, it becomes



AN ILLUSTRATED PROVERB.



FATHER TIME: "MY! MY! BUT IT LOOKS MORE LIKE 1900 B.C."

in fact a sort of index of the paper. If it have humor, so much the better. And the public now demands that it shall be well drawn.

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THE NEW CONQUEST OF THE WORLD

THE PRESSURE OF MODERN INDUSTRY THE KEY TO COLONIZATION AND DIPLOMACY — INVESTMENTS IN BACKWARD LANDS — VAST UNTOUCHED REGIONS — THE SHIFTING OF THE MANUFACTURING CENTRE — CENTURIES OF PEACEFUL LABOR REQUIRED

BY

DR. PAUL S. REINSCH

ASSISTANT PROFESSOR OF POLITICAL SCIENCE AT THE UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN

THERE have been two great outbursts of national expansive energy in modern history, and both were contemporaneous with periods of national enthusiasm, but they differed essentially in character. The first expansion movement, which followed upon the ultimate establishment of Spanish, English, and French national unity and power, — from the days of Ferdinand and Isabella down to Colbert, — was primarily commercial in methods and purpose. The gold of South America and the wealth of the Orient were sought by the merchant adventurers of those days. Goods were received as the natives brought them to the "factories," or, at most, plantations were established in which the colonial products were raised for the market. Such was the character of colonial enterprise in India, along the African coast, in South America, and the West Indies. The development of manufacturing industries in the colonies was prevented by strict navigation laws, and it was believed that the natural wealth of the dependencies could be drawn upon indefinitely for the benefit of the metropolis.

The period of expansion which has come to a climax at the end of the nineteenth century is radically different. Though it also has commercial aims, its distinguishing and essential element is industrial colonization. The development of natural resources of all kinds, the opening of roads and other means of communication, the modification of native methods of production, and the establishment of manufactures on a Western model in hitherto undeveloped regions, — these are the primary aims of the present policy of colonial expansion.

This is but part of a profound change in the economic world of the West from commercialism to capitalism. The ideal of the middle of the century was expressed in strong home industries and a prosperous trade. Thus, the English policy of that period may be summarized as demanding free food, free raw material, and free trade in general. It was believed that the whole world was ready to adopt the free trade policy as a permanent basis of commercial relations. As in that case the country having the strongest home industry would succeed, every energy was bent towards developing internal manufacturing capacity.

Two causes have conditioned the radical change of economic policy which we are at present witnessing. In the first place, capital has been accumulated in the older European countries far beyond the possibility of profitable investment at home. Fields where rich natural resources make the returns of capitalistic enterprise far greater than they can be in Europe, even with the exercise of the best judgment and skill, have attracted the attention of investors. Moreover, as a result of the very policy of fostering home industry, the markets of many nations have been partially closed against foreign manufactures by protecting tariffs, so that the only resource left to the capitalists of the older manufacturing nations was to enter the countries from which their goods had been excluded, and in this manner to gather honey from the ribs of the lion. Thus the United States and Russia, where extreme protection prevails, have become most profitable fields for the investment of British capital. The countries which have been chiefly affected by this change, and which are most

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largely interested in the new capitalistic expansion, are Great Britain, France, Germany, Holland, Belgium, and the United States. To a lesser extent Austria, Italy, and Spain have participated in the movement.

The following is a table of the sums (in millions of dollars) invested in colonies and foreign countries by the capitalists of the leading European nations, according to the estimate of a French authority: —

TABLE OF FOREIGN INVESTMENTS

Country	Total in Millions	Public Loans in Millions	Industrial Investments in Millions
Great Britain . . .	$8490	$3850	$4640
Germany	2955	1070	1885
France	2745	1640	1105
Holland	1930	560	1370
Belgium	1560	570	990

Of the new capital created in Great Britain in 1897, $288,500,000 was invested in foreign and colonial securities, $498,000,000 in home securities, — that is, over one-third of the new capital was foreign and colonial. It has been computed that on the average about 15% of the national wealth of European countries is invested abroad.

Protective tariffs are no longer very formidable to capital, which readily dissociates itself from any particular industry or country and seeks investment elsewhere, drawing advantage, by shrewd management and far-seeing calculation, from all the vicissitudes of political change. However, the capitalist makes one essential demand; he asks for security, for the assurance that wherever his capital may be invested, whether in a West African plantation or a Peruvian gold mine, its value shall not be endangered by political revolutions or by the inefficiency and corrupt favoritism of courts of law. This demand for settled and safe conditions of investment is one of the principal motives of colonial expansion on the part of the great civilized nations; and the effect of political responsibility is shown by the fact that British colonial securities are now in far greater demand and have higher and steadier prices than the securities of any other extra-European region, no matter how rich in resources it may be. Egypt, in complete bankruptcy in 1882, is at present able to obtain readily the millions necessary for the irrigation works on the Nile.

THE COMING INDUSTRIAL CONQUEST

The civilized powers are therefore preparing for the industrial conquest of the world. They have undertaken to open all promising regions to commercial and industrial development, and are striving to make investment in any part of the globe absolutely secure. Thus it is not only the desire for trade pure and simple, but a desire for fields of investment and exploitation that is the real motive of modern expansion. The watchword "trade follows the flag" is at present not so important as "the flag protects the investor." Commerce is more independent of political support than industry. It always makes for itself a way, and territorial possession is not indispensable to it. Coming and going with great mobility, according to local conditions, it is not subject to total ruin by political revolutions. Thus in all the turmoil of the Middle Ages the Italian republics were nevertheless able to build up a most flourishing Levantine trade.

Industrial development, however, demands more settled conditions. It cannot be carried on by means of small "factories" along the coast, but needs must penetrate into the interior of a country, to the forests, fields, and mines. It requires permanence of law and of government, the assurance that titles will not arbitrarily be disturbed, that contracts will be promptly and equitably enforced. While, in general, any civilized power will strive to establish these conditions, still the members of any one state or nation instinctively feel that these desiderata are realized most completely in regions over which the sovereignty of their state extends. This feeling is perhaps exaggerated at the present time, but it exists and must be reckoned with. The French complain that in English possessions and protectorates, such as Ceylon or Egypt, the French capitalists are at a disadvantage. They point to the unfavorable terms which they were forced to accept as Suez canal stockholders and state creditors of Egypt after the British occupation. The readiness with which protection will be granted, official aid in securing concessions, the matter of language, and familiarity

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with the law, are all considerations which cause the capitalist to long for protection by his own government. Often, on the other hand, the symbols of nationalism are simply used as a stock in trade to advance the interests of great international syndicates, whose members sneer at the naif simplicity of popular patriotism. To them the flag is merely an asset of trade.

There is a tendency among the great capitalists of each nation who are engaged in foreign and colonial enterprises to unite for the purpose of advancing their interests and protecting their rights. Thus British interests are looked after by the "Committee of Foreign Bondholders," a private organization. In France the government itself has organized "*L'Association Nationale des Porteurs des Valeurs Etrangères*," whose executive committee is nominated by the Minister of Finance. At the beginning of this year, on account of the South African troubles, there was organized by private initiative "*L'Union des Porteurs Françaises des mines d'or et des valeurs du Transvaal.*" The purpose of this organization is to defend the French interests in the Transvaal against the predominating power of English bondholders, whose influence is supposed to be inimical to the stockholders of other nations. In an address before this association, M. Paul Leroy-Beaulieu, its president, discounts the value of official action in such matters, and speaks with approval of the British private association for the protection of capitalists.

It may be interesting to review the various methods by which the industrial conquest of the world is being accomplished, and also to investigate what regions have actually been affected by the transformation which we have been describing.

Uninterrupted and rapid communication with the regions to be opened to modern trade and industry is the principal need of contemporary expansion. Consequently enterprises of transportation have taken on an importance heretofore unknown. No question has had a more far-reaching influence in contemporary world-politics than the problem of establishing and protecting routes of communication with colonial regions. Britain acquired the Cape of Good Hope on account of its position on the route to India, and the Boer war is defended on the same grounds as well as for the reason that the Cape to Cairo railway would be threatened by the continuance of Boer dominion. France intrigued at Fashoda and in Abyssinia for the double purpose of breaking England's line of communication and of herself gaining direct access from the Soudan to the Red Sea. The occupation of Malta, Cyprus, Aden, and even of lower Egypt by Great Britain was due to the desire to control the Suez Canal route to India. The possession of the Philippines is valued chiefly on account of the facility of access to China which they afford, while Cuba and Porto Rico are the keys to the Isthmian canal. These are only a few of the many examples illustrating the importance of communication in modern politics.

INTERIOR COMMUNICATION

After a region has been acquired and opened to exploitation, the first step to be taken is the construction of highways, canals, and railways, in order that the interior may be rendered accessible. Besides the Siberian railway, two other great intercontinental trunk lines have been planned, one, the Cape to Cairo railway to connect the Asiatic and African possessions of Great Britain, and the other to connect South America with the United States. The latter is already completed for more than half its length.

German capital is financing an exceedingly important railway project in Asia Minor. In its connection with the colonial aspirations of Germany, this undertaking is of the greatest political importance and interest to civilization. If Germany can make a home for her colonists in Asia Minor, Syria, and Mesopotamia, these regions will bloom again as in the days before the blight of Turkish rule fell upon them, when Antioch and Bagdad were capitals of civilization. The railway which is to connect Constantinople with Bagdad and with Damascus is already under operation for the greater part of the distance, and will be entirely completed within one or two years. The historical interest of the regions opened by this railway is second to none, and the agricultural and mineral resources, so long neglected, promise a very bright future. It is rather disconcerting to think of Jerusalem as a great railway and manufacturing centre, but the forces of mod-

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ern industrialism take little heed of sensitiveness upon the subject of historical and artistic associations.

To give some idea of the expansion of railway construction, we have added below a table showing the mileage of railways outside of Europe and the United States. By far the greater part of these railways are financed by British capital. French capital is interested chiefly in French colonial railways, and in some minor lines in South America. A few small railways in that continent have been financed by German banks. One of the most successful colonial railways is the short line connecting Boma with Stanley Pool, on the Congo; although it was very costly, it has become a most profitable enterprise on account of the wealth of the interior and the impassable barriers which the Congo rapids and the mountains here oppose to other kinds of transportation. Its stock was originally issued at fifty dollars a share; at present it is quoted at a figure in the neighborhood of forty times that sum.

RAILROAD MILEAGE IN UNDEVELOPED COUNTRIES.

	Miles.
Asia	28,365
Australia	16,157
South America	27,592
Mexico and Central America	8,564
Africa	10,606

AGRICULTURAL IMPROVEMENT IN BACKWARD LANDS.

The improvement of agricultural methods is another very important way in which capital develops backward countries. In tropical regions plantations of cocoa, coffee, rubber, and other products are organized under efficient management with large forces of laborers and with improved appliances that capital can provide. Regions already fertile by nature are thus made to yield an even greater abundance of produce. In the temperate zones the native populations have to yield control to more energetic agricultural immigrants, as has been the case in America, in South Africa, in Central Asia, and in Australia. In this manner the way is opened for the use of improved methods which will increase the yield of such regions manifold. Thus American farming machinery has of late been introduced in large quantities into Latin America, Siberia, and South Africa. Another very important means of increasing the agricultural productivity of backward regions is the construction of scientific irrigation works. Extensive improvements of this nature are being planned around Lake Balkash in Central Asia, and in Egypt, a country that will draw incalculable benefits from regulated irrigation. The great reservoir now in process of construction on the middle Nile is expected to double the productive capacity of Egypt, and by increasing the value of private property, to enable that country to pay off the vast load of indebtedness that has been threatening her economic existence.

UNDEVELOPED MINES AND VIRGIN FORESTS

Throughout the greater part of the world the resources of mines and forests have hardly as yet been touched, and it is to their development chiefly that modern industrial expansion looks. It is the mineral wealth of China, — her two hundred thousand square miles of coal fields and her vast deposits of iron and copper, — taken in connection with her teeming, laboring population, that has aroused the expectant interest of Western governments and capitalists. The mines of Australia have been not only a source of immense profit to British investors, but have also become the basis of a flourishing system of manufacturing industries. The mineral wealth of Mexico and South America is just beginning to be developed, as greater security of investment in these regions is gradually being established. Of course, in all these regions mining has been carried on from time immemorial by primitive methods, and since the first landing of Europeans precious metals have there been an article of commerce. The great change that we are now witnessing consists in taking from the hands of the natives the management and exploitation of these resources and applying to them the scientific methods in use in the Western world.

The last step in the industrial movement is the establishment of manufactures, with Western machinery, in regions where manufactures had previously not advanced beyond the stage of house industry. The beginnings that have so far been made seem small when compared with the total volume of the world's

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industry; but the movement having been started great things will inevitably flow from it, resulting finally in a complete transformation of the industrial world and shifting the centre of industry to the regions of the Pacific. Australia and Japan are the two countries in which the industrial evolution has proceeded with the greatest rapidity and success. Australia and New Zealand already manufacture practically all articles of ordinary consumption, especially textiles, clothing, paper, and hardware; and while the apprehensions entertained as to the threatening industrial prowess of Japan have not been fulfilled by a general establishment of manufactures, her textile and cotton yarn industries are in a very flourishing condition. In India native workmanship has already been profoundly influenced by the new methods; while even conservative China, after the war with Japan, made a beginning in modern cotton and iron manufacture in the cities of Canton, Hankow, and Shanghai. The regions about Buenos Ayres, Rio de Janeiro, and Valparaiso in South America are also becoming assimilated to the older industrial centres.

As capital is the nerve and sinew of the industrial conquest of undeveloped regions, the system of banking and credit institutions must follow up and assist the latest advances of enterprise into new territory. Powerful banking corporations, capitalized usually at an average of $5,000,000, having their seat in London, Paris, or Berlin, extend their branches and their business agencies to the most remote parts of the world. Thus, British capital has nine banks in Africa, fifteen in Australia, eight in India and the East, thirteen in America, and three in other parts of the world. Together, these forty-eight institutions represent a paid-up capital of $235,470,000. Not only do these banks facilitate commercial exchanges by arranging for credit and making transfers of funds, but they are engaged especially in financing great industrial enterprises, such as the building of railways and the operation of mines.

THE SHIFTING OF THE CENTRE OF THE WORLD

After having thus briefly reviewed the forces of industrial expansion together with their various activities and methods, it may not be amiss to glance at some of the consequences that are likely to follow in the wake of these developments. It is apprehended by many that the industrial greatness of Europe will soon be a thing of the past; that the centre of industry will be removed to the countries looking out upon the Pacific Ocean, countries with resources that render the mineral wealth of Europe insignificant. For a long time, of course, the superior experience, intelligence, and training of European workmen will retain for the Old World a share in industrial supremacy together with the United States. But after the development of the fabulous resources of the Older World, the Orient, is begun in earnest, the ultimate desertion of Europe by many of her present industries will become merely a question of time, although perhaps of a long time. Whether Europe, as the centre of the capitalistic administration of the world, would retain her supremacy in civilization after her industrial life had become secondary can at present be only a matter of conjecture, but it is certain that her manufacturing industries could not permanently compete with the superior natural advantages that will favor those of China and the United States.

The industrial life of the Orient has so far been carried on entirely in the form of house industries organized in a guild system. The highly artistic nature of the products of Oriental workmanship is well known. The remarkable color sense expressed in the exquisite blending of shades in Oriental rugs, the plastic faculty that gives form to their ivory and wood carving, their delicate and beautiful textiles, have been the marvel of the West ever since trade relations were established in the Middle Ages. But there is great danger that by the introduction of cheap processes of manufacture many of these artistic industries will be destroyed, — a result that is already impending in India, where the handicrafts are said to be losing their æsthetic character. This may be an inevitable item in the price the world has to pay for general progress.

One of the most important articles of manufacture is clothing, and so it is small wonder that, wherever modern industrial expansion extends, an effort should be made to induce the natives to adopt the European form of dress. In this respect the needs of industry

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are aided by the efforts of the missionaries, whose first endeavor is to prevail upon their converts to don a civilized garb. The clothes question is an important chapter in colonial politics, and we are in great need of a Sartor Resartus for aborigines. Disastrous consequences to the health of the natives have in many cases resulted from a sudden and unintelligent adoption and use of European clothes, so that from the standpoint of civilization and of their own welfare there may be small gain in forcing the natives to wear a costume unadapted to their surroundings. Sometimes they persistently refuse to change their manner of dress. Thus when English traders neglected to furnish the *barong*, the native costume of the Javanese, the latter caused their wants to be supplied by Dutch and German manufacturers. It has often been observed that British manufacturers on the whole pay too little heed to the special wants and likings of native populations. They furnish high class, durable articles adapted to European standards and expect the natives to be satisfied therewith. However, as the reports made by the colonial governments to Mr. Chamberlain in 1897 clearly show, other nations have gained considerable trade in British colonies by ministering to the special needs of the native populations, supplying goods that are showy and cheap and adapted to the local surroundings. A peculiar example of German enterprise is reported from Central America, where a cheap garment, much worn by the natives and formerly manufactured by the Indians, is now furnished to the latter for resale by the German importers.

Vast regions are as yet untouched by the present movement of industrial expansion. Afghanistan, Persia, Thibet, and the whole interior of China, the equatorial regions of Africa as well as of South America, are still practically unaffected by the new forces, although they are advancing rapidly inward from the coast regions. As practically all available territory has now been brought under the political influence of civilized powers, the industrial transformation of the world may be expected to proceed with regularity during the twentieth century. It will be the age of industry following the era of settlement and commerce.

VAST REGIONS YET UNTOUCHED

Colonies in the temperate zones, peopled by European settlers, import vastly more than the tropical colonies, and even than European countries. On the one hand, the abundant resources of these regions render the colonists able to purchase the commodities which their training and habit cause them to desire. On the other hand they have not as yet themselves developed a complete industrial system. Thus, West Australia has the exceedingly high figure of a per capita importation of one hundred and fifty dollars; though very rich in pastoral and mineral resources, she has scarcely any manufacturing industries. The other Australian colonies, as well as New Zealand, South Africa, and Canada, also import relatively very large quantities. In South America it is the subtropical countries of Chile, Argentina, and Uruguay, that offer the best market for manufactured goods and that show the most advanced industrial development.

Turning to the tropical colonies and countries, we find that their importations are decidedly lower, except in cases where special conditions prevail, as where a country is a mere *entrepôt* of trade for interior regions. The question suggests itself whether a very high industrial development will ever be possible where Nature has lavished her gifts in such profusion. The conditions of life are too easy; food is abundant; the wants of the natives are few and not easily augmented. At present, unhappily, the objects most desired by them are rum, gunpowder, and worthless knickknacks, objects which in no way tend to increase the productive capacity of the population.

We must add the almost general absence of coal in the tropical zone. It is, therefore, the better organization of plantation industries, the fuller exploitation of mines, that may be expected in these regions, rather than the establishment of important manufactures. The first desideratum, without which all industrial progress is impossible, is the absolute suppression of the traffic in rum and of the slave trade. Unless the provisions of the Brussels Act of 1890 are completely lived up to and enforced by all the powers interested in Africa, there is no hope for the industrial prosperity of the African tropics.

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No one can behold the new fields and possibilities opened up to the human race by the developments which we have just traced without the thought, that for centuries to come there is here provided work in abundance for willing hands. Could the crying injustice to natives, the utter disregard of human rights, that so often mar the work of the greatest pioneers of industrial advance, be shut out from our vision, the picture of teeming resources only awaiting a master hand to be turned into wealth and bountiful sustenance for whole nations would fill us with pure gratification. What a school for hardy training in bold purpose and iron will power, what risks to face, what dangers to overcome, what prizes to win! How small seem the adventurers of the Spanish main, even with their gold-laden ships, when we look at the achievements of Lord Cromer in Egypt, of the Russian engineers in Siberia, of Stanley in Central Africa. May the ideal side, the obligations to humanity, of this great movement be realized more fully, to the end that it may become humanized and refined, and lose some of the rude characteristics and instincts that it still has in common with the Elizabethan freebooters. May industrialism also forbear to reduce the life of the world to the sordid uniformity of a dead mechanism, but taking account of the rich variety of human existence, aid the peculiar genius of race and locality to find the best means of expression. Thus would the world be truly enriched by the industrial conquest.

MR. SANDERS ON THE DEMOCRATS

THE MULTITUDE OF THOMAS JEFFERSONS WHO SEE THE COUNTRY GOING TO EVERLASTING RUIN — WHY THE PARTY'S GOT TO WASH ITS FACE AN' HANDS AND GO BACK TO FIRST PRINCIPLES

BY

JOEL CHANDLER HARRIS

WHEN Mr. Billy Sanders came into town for the first time after the election, he was in a mood unusually gay.

"Howdy, boys!" he cried. "Ef you-all ain't as well as you oughter be, it ain't the fault of the weather. I never seed finer. I hear it talked all round that the country has gone headforemost to the dogs, an' I jest thought I'd drap in an' view the remains. I fetched my pocket-hankcher along, thinkin' that ef thar was any weepin' an' wailin' gwine on, I could stan' aroun' an' blow my nose a time or two for to let the fam'ly an' intimate friends know that my sympathizin' apparatus is oiled up an' in workin' order.

"But I reckon I might as well 'a' stayed at home," he went on, after pausing and looking all around. "You-all seem to be about as happy as you was when Uncle Grover went in the second time, an' ever'thing else looks like it's purty much whar it was awhile ago. The old tavern ain't budged out'n its tracks, an' I don't reckon they's any extry cracks in the ceilin'; an' I noticed as I come along that the Boston feller has broke ground for his big cotton fact'ry.

"Hello, Wimple," he cried to a tall, serious-looking man with long hair and beard, who came up at the moment. "I see you got left. Well, I tried to drap you a hint or two, but I'd jest as well 'a' tried to knock my old steer down with a bundle of fodder."

Mr. Wimple had been the Populist candidate for the State senate in the district, and this was the first time Mr. Sanders had seen him since the election.

"I stood for Principles," said Mr. Wimple, after greeting Mr. Sanders in a very friendly way. "I'd 'a' run ef I hadn't got but one vote, an' that my own."

Mr. Sanders pursed his lips and reflected a moment. "When it comes to Principles," he went on, "I've lived some time an' I've seed

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a heap of quare capers in politics an' out, but I ain't never seed nothin' that's knee-high to this Principle business. Some feller wi' a voice as loud as the whistle of a steam saw-mill will git on a table in a crowd an' rip an' snort an' holler an' whoop, an' when he gits tired he'll stop an' say he's been tellin' you what the Principles of the party is. An' the crowd'll clap an' yell an' take it all in as the gospel truth. I've done it myself, an' I know what I'm talkin' about; I ain't no smarter than the crowd, but I've been watchin' these gwines-on longer'n most people.

"I reckon maybe I'll die a Dimmycrat the way things is runnin', but I didn't start out a Dimmycrat. I was a Whig tell I found out that the Principles of that party was mainly made up of asthmy an' side-whiskers. I come out from among 'em when Aleck Stephens did, an' I ain't never had no call to shed any tears over the move. Jest as the Whig leaders done, that's jest the way the Dimmycrats is tryin' to do, an' I don't see how anybody's gwine to stop 'em. Some chap wi' good lungs an' more conceit than Bill the Dutchman, ups an' gives out his opinion, an' calls it a Democratic Principle — or some feller has a remedy to offer, an', right off, it's made into a Principle. Now, how can any party hope to git the votes of the sensible people of the country by gwine round whoopin' up all the freaks an' hoodoos, an' howlin' that the side issues is the main thing? What would 'a' become of Barnum ef he had put on his bills that the side-show was a bigger thing than the circus? Why, his concern wouldn't 'a' lasted a week."

"Nevertheless," remarked Mr. Wimple, "I intend to stick by Principle. I don't believe we'll ever have a fair election in this country again. The trusts and the monopolies have got too much money; they can buy all the votes they want. They'd buy 'em down here ef they needed 'em."

"Now, that's mighty funny," responded Mr. Sanders. "The last time I seed you, you was makin' a speech, an' you shuck your fist in the air, an' hollered out that the trusts wa'n't nothin' but wind an' water, nohow, an' they never could walk off wi' the rights an' privileges of a free constituency. I ricklect that I said to some un nigh me, 'Wimple's gone down into the dictionary fer his doctrine, an' it's mighty soun', be jigged ef it ain't!'

"I'll tell you, my friend," Mr. Sanders went on, "it don't do no good for the pot to call the kittle black, but ef some of you fellers would kinder trim your beards an' sorter comb your ha'r, an' git down off'n your high hosses, an' take a common-sense view of matters an' things, the Dimmycrats would have a lots better chance for to git in the swim. A heap of fellers has got the idee that thar's a standin' row betwixt the men that's got the money an' the men that want it; but that ain't so; they ain't a word of truth in it. They fall out sometimes, but that's bekaze both sides is afear'd that t'other side b'lieves what the politicians say. At the bottom of it all is a cle'r understandin' that the man that works is wuth his pay, an' that the man that pays has a right to git the wuth of his money. You fellers — an' some of us, too — we're in the same boat — is tryin' to knock the bottom out'r this understandin', an' the minnit you do it, you set fire to the powder fact'ry. The main trouble is, the fellers that's got the money ain't got no more sense than to b'lieve that the bottom can be knocked out'n this understandin'. You can't git it out'n the'r heads. An' yit, all the politicians that may rise up an' howl betwixt this an' kingdom come can't git up no lastin' trouble of that kind.

"But I'll tell you whar it hurts an' hurts bad," said Mr. Sanders, with some warmth. "It hurts right here at home, whar we live at. Money is more like my old saddle-hoss than anything I know of. I can git on that old hoss's back an' shoot birds all day, but, shoot a gun when he's loose in the pastur', an' he'll break his neck but what he'll git out'n thar. It don't look reasonable, an' yit it's a fact. An' it's purty much the same way wi' money. Plant it some'rs, an' it'll fight for itself like a wildcat, but let it be lookin' for a place to camp, an' it'll jump up an' run off ef it hears a turkey gobbler sneeze. Them that's got the time can go to work an' account for it ef they want to, but the main thing to know is that it's a fact."

"Why, I heard," said Mr. Wimple, "that you give that Boston feller a mighty scoring t'other day."

"Did I?" inquired Mr. Sanders, his blue eyes beaming with innocence. "Well, I

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reckon maybe he's forgot it by this time; ef he ain't, I'll bet you a thrip to a ginger cake that he thinks he got the best of me. He wanted me to put ten thousand dollars in his mill for to sorter make him feel like he was at home here. But I said I wa'n't no ways greedy; I didn't want to keep other folks out of a good investment. So I told him he mought put me down for five thousand, payable on demand, an' when he got his machinery in I'd plank down another five; an' I'm mighty much afear'd I'll have to either steal it or borry it."

"You don't mean to say that you propose to put ten thousand dollars in that new mill!" exclaimed Mr. Wimple.

"Ef sayin' it was all, it'd be a mighty easy matter," said Mr. Sanders, dryly, "but I'm afear'd I'll have to plank down the cold cash. That's part of my business in town to-day. I thought I mought kill two birds wi' one barrel — mourn over the decay of North American institutions, an' borry enough money for to pay my just debts."

"You may joke about the situation if you want to," remarked Mr. Wimple, "but it seems to me to be very serious. I see no hope whatever for the common people."

"Well, I'll ax you this," said Mr. Sanders in an argumentative tone. "When an' wharbouts have the common people ever failed to look out for themselves? Ef you'll tell me the time an' show me the place, I'll take out my hankcher an' jine you in a reel hearty cry. The trouble wi' you fellers is that you talk one way when you're runnin' an' another way when you git left. You git up an' you say the people can be trusted, that the'r hearts is in the right place, an' that they can see as fur thro' a mill-stone as the next one; an' then, after the people have made up the'r minds, an' concluded for to put t'other side in, you fling back your head an' say the country is ruined. Now, what's the reason the people ain't got as much sense after the election as they have before? That's what I want to know, an' nobody won't tell me.

"You can't make me b'lieve the people didn't know what they was a-doin' this time; they had all the facts before 'em, an' the bulk on 'em felt purty much the same way. Le' me tell you, my friend, ef any party was to take an' bury the Constitution a mile deep in the ground, the people would go to work an' dig it out, an' put it back in the old frame, an' you wouldn't hardly know it had been took out. That's the plain truth. You say you trust the people; well, then trust 'em, by jing! Don't play at trustin' 'em.

"I reckon you've often noticed that the people trust themselves. They'll holler an' whoop when the politicians ax 'em for to stand up an' be men an' vote to save the'r government from teetotal ruin; but when they git off to themselves in the little knots an' groups whar they settle all these questions, they make a joke of the whole business. They know mighty well that ef one party goes wrong, they can make it pay a purty price for the spree; an' they've allers done it. You can't p'int to the time when a party begun for to kick too high to suit the idees of the people that they didn't whirl in an' put it out for the time bein'.

"Don't git into no misunderstandin' of what I'm a-sayin', Jeff," continued Mr. Sanders, addressing Mr. Wimple. "As I said, it don't do no good for the pot to call the kittle black; but look at your party — one half of it walkin' in the mud, or dust, accordin' to the state of the weather an' the character of the middle of the road, an' t'other half doin' its level best for to manage the Dimmycrats, an' a-comin' so nigh doin' of it that it makes a feller hold his breath when he thinks about it."

"How would I better myself by falling in with the Bryan crowd?" Mr. Wimple inquired.

"Well, ef you're out for yourself, you'd better git in bed wi' the Republican crowd. Ef you can't git in from the front crawl over the foot-board, an' scrouge, an' hunch, an' claw, tell you git a good warm place, an' then lay still. As for the Dimmycrats, the time's past when you can hurt 'em by j'inin' 'em, or by gwine off som'ers else. The party has got to that p'int whar it can't be hurt any wuss, an' whar it can't be holp by anybody on the outside. It's got to wash its face an' han's an' put on some clean duds an' go back to fust principles. It's got to put men in the lead that knows what fust principles is — men who won't up an' sw'ar that the'r own idees an' opinions is fust principles."

"The newspapers are already talking about reorganizing the party," said one in the crowd.

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"Yes, you can allers depend on the newspapers for to take hold of the wrong eend of the bag," replied Mr. Sanders. "The party never had a better organization. What it needs is a man, or a set of men, who can look into the'r own minds an' know what the people want. You nee'nter tell me — thar never was a day when the people of this country wan't purty nigh all on 'em Dimmycrats, an' they don't need no organizin' on that line. All that the party needs is to put its headlight in front instead of behind, an' to stop foolin' wi' men that thinks the republic has been wrecked ever' time a betsy bug flies ag'in the wall. Ef you was to rake the country over wi' a fine-tooth comb, you couldn't find a wuss old moss-back than me. I don't like changes, an' I'm so sot in my ways that I'll wake up ef the clock stops tickin', an' yit ef I can't git waffles for breakfast, I can git along mighty well wi' battercakes, an' ef I can't git battercakes, I can put up wi' four or five right hot biscuit.

"Politics is got so important that ef a man spells a word wrong in the flatform, the big men won't play — they say they'll pick up the'r doll-rags an' go home, an' then ever'body gits skeered an' runs about hollerin' that ruination is about for to do its wusst. Now, I think a little doste of ruination like that would do the party an' the country a whole lot of good. I don't want to see nobody's neck broke, but I think it's lots better for to hurt the feelin's of a few men than to run a big party in the ground. You'll see, ever' once in a while, some feller comin' to the front loaded down wi' the things that Jefferson said. That's all right, but Jefferson, bein' red-headed an' fond of the fiddle, had his off days, an' I'll bet you the price of a 'possum that thar was long days when the man didn't keer a red cent whether the country was whar it used to be, or whether the constitution had been abolished. He was a mighty big man, take his measure whichever way you want to, but he wa'n't talkin' Dimmycrat doctrine ever' time he opened his mouth, or took his pen in han'. He writ out the principles, but he didn't make 'em; he took 'em as he found 'em, an' he put 'em all in. The trouble is that ever' once in a while some feller rises up an' takes a notion that he'll be the John Thomas Jefferson of his day an' time, an' then the party is in hot water tell the people put the man to sleep.

"I've took notice," continued Mr. Sanders, "that they's a whole passel of fellers in the world that never is satisfied wi' good enough, an' they kick up the biggest kind of a racket tryin' to give the people mor'n they want. This is whar the whole trouble lies — a few men settin' themselves up as the Thomas Jefferson Know-All Company, wi' charter rights to put the'r own idees in operation in place of Dimmycratic principles. I say trouble — but it ain't no trouble to the people for to set right flat down on that kind of doin's.

"The fact of the business is that the common people of the country have got more patience than Job; they set down on these new John Thomas Jeffersons year arter year an' don't never seem to git tired. They don't make no fuss about it; they jest go to the polls ever' four years an' rip the socks off'n them that's took the contract for to fill the Jefferson brand of foot-gear. They don't say they're gwine to do it; they don't put no advertisement in the newspapers; but they jest wink at one another, an' the thing's done. Then some simlin-headed son of a gun jumps up an' says that somebody has played traitor, an' another simlin-head rises up an' says the people have been bought — when anybody wi' a grain of common sense oughter know that they ain't money enough in the world for to buy the common people. More'n that they ain' jackasses enough in the world to fool 'em all the time, or even a good part of the time.

"Now, ef you young fellers will put that in your pipes an' smoke it, an' keep your weather eye open, you won't have to go roun' axin' your neighbors how the election's gwinter turn out nex' time; you'll know long before the ballotin' begins. As for me, havin' gone so deep into the fact'ry business, I reckon I'll have to go in deeper for to save my reputation. So long, boys!"

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PROSPERITY BY COÖPERATION

THE CONDITION OF THE IRISH PEASANTS WHO HAVE CREAMERIES, COÖPERATIVE POULTRY SOCIETIES, AND LOCAL BANKS — THE INSTANT SUCCESS OF INDUSTRIAL ORGANIZATION WHERE POLITICAL REMEDIES HAD FAILED FOR YEARS

MR. HORACE PLUNKETT, it is now plain, has inaugurated nothing less than an industrial revolution in Ireland, and in so doing has provided an example for backward rural populations everywhere. Being a clear-headed man of affairs, he saw that what Ireland needed was not political agitation but economic development, and he set to work about ten years ago to introduce coöperation among small farmers. He began with the creamery business. For a time rural conservation, ignorance, and suspicion opposed many difficulties. But the results of his work now speak for themselves.

Two hundred coöperative creameries are in operation, with a share-holding membership of over twenty thousand, and annual sales of half a million sterling. And every year brings a steady increase. The demand for competent creamery managers exceeds the supply, and better stock, better milk, and better prices show what the farmer has gained. The average increase in value of the product of each cow is estimated at seven dollars a year; in some cases it is much more. Many more laborers now own cows than formerly.

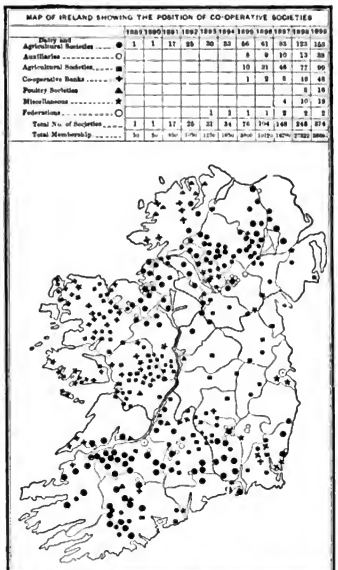
A typical illustration of how a creamery opens a small gold mine to the peasants of the neighborhood is afforded by the case of a cottager on a single acre of land who formerly grazed one cow on the "long farm"; that is, along the roadside. He now owns eight milch cows, for which he rents pasture, and which produce several hundred dollars' worth of milk a year. The struggling tenant has been transformed into a thrifty farmer and small capitalist; and this is the noteworthy result.

An example of these coöperative creameries is the one at Killygordon, on the borders of Tyrone and Donegal. The president is a Protestant landlord, the secretary a small Catholic shop-keeper, — significant of the way in which men of all creeds and classes, divided by long-standing hatreds and jealousies, are brought together by the new movement. When this creamery was established, the neighboring farmers were inclined to hold aloof. They thought it impossible to strip cream from fresh milk. They saw no advantage in combination. They believed that the concern was really some kind of a syndicate to force down prices. But a few months' evidence of the prices paid those on the inside converted them. The enterprise has been from the first increasingly prosperous. Its books, with full details regarding receipts, expenses, and daily product, are submitted once a month to a committee of the farmers, to whom the profits go. Thus they are familiarized with every branch of the business, and at the same time educated in practical affairs.

Encouraged by success, the creameries are branching out into other lines. Plans are now making to supply with fresh milk large towns both in Ireland and in England. The dairyman will thus eliminate the middleman and get full value for his product. Another twelve months bids fair to see this in operation.

Seven years ago the movement begun by Mr. Plunkett and his associates had grown until it became necessary to form the Irish Agricultural Organization Society to carry it on. This is made up of men of all creeds and parties. It seeks to teach those who most need help how to help themselves; it gives nothing but advice. Wherever any branch of the farming industry seems likely to be benefited by combination, its agents are ready to organize a society, and to explain the methods which experience has shown to be most successful. The results have surprised even the founders. Five hundred societies have been registered, with a membership of fifty thou-

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	1889	1890	1891	1892	1893	1894	1895	1896	1897	1898	1899	1900
Dairy and Agricultural Societies	●	1	1	17	25	30	33	56	61	85	123	155
Auxiliaries	○							8	9	10	13	20
Agricultural Societies	■							10	21	46	77	99
Co-operative Banks	✦							1	2	5	10	48
Poultry Societies	▲										5	10
Miscellaneous	★									4	10	19
Federations	○					1	1	1	1	2	2	2
Total No. of Societies		1	1	17	25	31	34	76	104	148	248	374
Total Membership		30	30	450	650	1150	1850	3000	4000	5000	7322	9000

sand farmers and laborers, mostly heads of families. Many of these are for the purchase at wholesale prices of articles used in agriculture — implements, seeds, fertilizers, etc. An enormous saving has resulted.

The more difficult problem of marketing produce without the intervention of middlemen is now being attacked. The improving of live-stock is another object sought; many small farmers have been enabled to secure blooded bulls, boars, rams, and stallions. This work has been carried into the very poorest parts of Ireland. Other societies concern themselves with the conduct of home industries which afford profitable employment for the women and children, while already the second stage of coöperation has been reached in the federation of local societies into central bodies for larger trade purposes. The Agricultural Wholesale Society purchases farming requisites for its members, the coöperative agricultural societies, and the Irish Cooperative Agency Society markets the butter, poultry, and eggs of the dairying and poultry societies.

These poultry societies, which have been only a short time at work, have advanced prices to a point hitherto unknown, and attention is being now directed to the establishment of central packing depots, to prepare for shipment eggs and poultry collected by the local societies. It is also proposed to attach to each depot a poultry farm, where chickens can be artificially hatched and reared, and sittings of eggs and stock birds of the best breeds furnished the members, together with practical instruction in the business of poultry raising. When it is remembered that England, just across the channel, yearly pays to foreign countries twenty million dollars for eggs alone, it will be seen that these poultry societies have a future before them only second in importance to that of the coöperative creameries.

The most valuable, however, of all the projects of the Organization Society for Ireland's economic regeneration are its agricultural banks, more properly called credit associations, on the Raiffeisen system. There are now nearly a hundred of these associations scattered throughout the rural districts of Ireland. Each association, which only admits approved members, borrows money (seldom over a hundred pounds) on the joint and several security, and this is employed by a committee of farmers in small loans to approved borrowers, who are required to furnish two sureties, and to state the purpose for which the money is wanted. The rules provide — and this is the salient feature of the system — that money shall only be lent for a productive purpose, which may be expected to enable the borrower to repay out of his profits fifteen dollars to buy one loom and to repair another.

Only those familiar with rural life in the poorer districts of Ireland can fully realize the relief which one of these agricultural banks, which borrows at four or five and lends at six per cent, brings to those who hitherto have had to struggle along at the tender mercies of the "gombeen man." Each borrower becomes a member, jointly responsible with every other member to the

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full extent of the bank's liabilities, and is therefore personally interested in the repayment of every loan. Thus are bred thrift, prudence, and forethought, while, as each loan is considered on its merits as a productive investment, whole communities have constantly before them speaking proofs of the true functions of capital and credit, and of the difference between borrowing to spend and borrowing to make. Hundreds of backward parishes will eventually be transformed by these agricultural banks.

The best work of the Irish Organization Society is educational.

"We simply seek," says Mr. Plunkett, "to persuade our countrymen that their economic salvation rests with themselves, and that they must learn to work together instead of working in helpless isolation. Our aim is to build up the character of the people, stimulate their energies, appeal to their intelligence, their manliness, their national pride, their self-respect, and then put before them the work to be done. All this may seem sentimental, but without the aid of sentiment you can do no practical good in Ireland. Experience, moreover, has taught us the strange fact that the lower you descend in the social scale, the more potent is the appeal to the better feelings of the people. It is only recently that we have carried our economic gospel down to the very poorest communities in the poorest districts. We thought it would be hard to explain so strange a doctrine, and that if we made it intelligible it would be regarded as a stone by people in need of bread. We were entirely wrong. The idea of the welfare of Ireland inspires them more than any other thought with the desire to help themselves and each other. I am wholly right in saying that the economic regeneration of Ireland is first of all a human problem, in dealing with which you are inevitably brought back to education as the chief remedy."

Along with its programme of organization, Mr. Plunkett's society carries out a comprehensive scheme of technical instruction. This includes the teaching by experts of business methods and the keeping of accounts, as well as of the best methods of farming. A dozen or more experimental plots have been established, where are tested seeds, manures, crops, soils, and methods. These experiments are eagerly watched by the farmers, and have been productive of much good. Dairy, poultry, and bee-keeping experts are also employed to train and advise the members in these branches. Printed instructions are provided for lace-making and other home industries. This educational propaganda has lately received a powerful impulse in the creation by Parliament of a Board of Agriculture and Technical Instruction for Ireland. The main business of this body will be to do throughout Ireland what the Agricultural Organization has already done in the least hopeful districts.

An experiment in coöperative grazing is being conducted at Donaghpatrick, in the County Meath. A society rents a piece of land, which it sublets to its members at current rates, dividing the profits among them in proportion to the rent paid by each. Similar undertakings have been embarked in elsewhere, and the Organization Society is seeking to have the land purchase laws amended to permit of government advances to coöperative societies for the purchase of land for their members.

Through the efforts of Mr. Plunkett and his associates the population of Ireland, which was counted the most discouraged and hopeless in Europe, is rising steadily in the social scale. Yet they consider that so far only a fair beginning has been made in the work which they hope to do. But they have already gone far enough to set an object-lesson for the world. Legislators have tried in vain to vote Ireland out of her poverty, and economists have discoursed of supply and demand to show that it was useless to expect relief. Now we have something that is better than either laws or theories. A dynamic force has been set at work. Constructive effort along the lines of industrial organization, social education, and commercial progress have shown that, with these present, economic conditions are transitory and legislative remedies superfluous. They are the weapons by which poverty and helplessness elsewhere must be attacked, in the old world or the new, among Russian peasants or Southern negroes. Better opportunities and better men mean the amelioration of adverse conditions.

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THE CANAL AND THE TREATY

BY

J. D. WHELPLEY

AFTER two weeks of almost continuous discussion the Senate of the United States formulated a treaty to be submitted to England which is intended to supersede the Clayton-Bulwer treaty of 1850, and to allow the building of an isthmian canal under exclusive American commercial and military control. This treaty reached the British government early in January, and by the terms of a previous agreement it has until March 4 to reject or to approve it. Except the treaty of peace with Spain no state document of the past half century has enunciated principles of greater importance concerning the control of the North American continent by the United States than this new canal treaty.

For fifty years the question of a canal from the Atlantic to the Pacific Ocean across Nicaragua has hung on the Clayton-Bulwer treaty between the United States and Great Britain. It has been contended by some that this convention is obsolete through England's own acts, but the McKinley administration has proceeded upon the theory, well sustained by international law and precedent, that it is in as full effect to-day as when it was made. In that convention the two countries agreed to the following principles: —

1. Neither government shall ever obtain or maintain exclusive control over the canal nor build fortifications along the route.

2. Neither shall ever take possession of any part of Central America nor fortify any part nor establish colonies there nor exert any dominion nor make any use of any alliance or protectorate that either may have there to this end.

3. They promise mutually to guard the safety and neutrality of the canal and to invite all other nations to do the same.

4. They promise also to extend their joint support and protection to any satisfactory canal company which may undertake the work.

5. Desiring by this convention not only to accomplish a particular object but also to establish a general principle, they hereby agree to extend their protection by treaty stipulations to any other practical communications whether by canal or railway across the isthmus.

When Secretary Hay took the subject up he drafted an agreement securing to the United States the right to build an American canal free from British supervision. This document was submitted to the British government and agreed to without the change of a word. It was intended and understood by both parties as supplementary to the Clayton-Bulwer treaty. In the prelude it is stated that the agreement is entered into because both the United States and Great Britain are anxious to facilitate the construction of a ship canal across the isthmus and to that end "to remove any objection which may arise out of the convention of April 19, 1850, commonly known as the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, to the construction of such canal under the auspices of the government of the United States without impairing the general principle of neutralization." The first article of the treaty proposed by Mr. Hay gives to the United States the right to build the canal in any way deemed best and give this country exclusive management and control of it. Article two provides for the adoption of the rules of Constantinople as agreed to October 29, 1888, between Great Britain and certain other powers for the management and for the guarantee of the neutrality of the Suez Canal. These rules provide that the United States shall erect no fortifications commanding the canal or adjacent waters. In article three of the Hay treaty other powers of the world are invited to join the convention and adhere to its provisions.

This treaty could not become effective until ratified by the United States Senate. As discussion of the treaty proceeded, a very strong opposition developed to its terms. The late

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Senator Davis had prepared an amendment which he believed would meet the views of those who favored a retention of the right to use the canal as part of the national defences if necessary. This amendment met with great favor, though it was evidently proposed more for the purpose of placating the jingo element in the Senate than for any real value it possessed as an integral clause in the treaty. The introduction of this amendment opened the door for many others, ranging from mild modification to the most violent and threatening sentiment.

When the treaty was finally disposed of by the Senate it had been modified in three important particulars. First, it was provided that the new treaty should supersede, entirely, the Clayton-Bulwer convention. Second, it was provided that none of the clauses applying to the neutrality of the canal should "apply to measures which the United States may find it necessary to take for securing, by its own forces, the defence of the United States and the maintenance of public order," this being the so-called Davis amendment. Third, the clause inviting other nations to join in the proposed treaty was omitted.

Great Britain would no doubt have promptly ratified the treaty with the Davis amendment and the omission of the clause inviting other nations to join. The former means very little in view of the other conditions of the treaty, and the omission of the latter is rather a compliment to England. The serious point of controversy is the insertion by the Senate of the words "which convention is hereby superseded," meaning the Clayton-Bulwer agreement. The latter contains a far-reaching "general principle" concerning the joint neutrality and protection of the whole of Central America. If the treaty now proposed is ratified by Great Britain, she will terminate her joint protectorate with the United States of six Central American republics, and absolve herself of any obligation to assist in the protection of any trans-Isthmian route.

The publication of the treaty as it came from the Senate occasioned a vigorous outburst of anti-American sentiment in the English newspapers. The London *Times* reminds us "that England is a great North American power and means to remain such a power. If the Hay-Pauncefote treaty is not adopted in a form acceptable to us," it continues, "we shall stand quietly upon our indubitable rights under the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, which cannot be affected by any action the American Senate may choose to take." The Republican majority in the Senate is confident that Great Britain will accept the treaty as now proposed, but this confidence is not shared by President McKinley and his immediate advisers. Great Britain may make a counter proposition. There is no danger of a rupture between the governments, but the cutting of the canal may be indefinitely delayed. Delay, there is reason to fear, is the aim of the amendments.

A number of United States senators have shown a most pugnacious spirit, and it has been given out by them quietly that, although England is allowed until the 4th of March to consider the treaty, if she does not ratify it by the 15th of February, Congress will adopt a resolution declaring the Clayton-Bulwer convention null and void, this declaration to be followed by the immediate passage of the Nicaragua canal bill. It is also understood that, even if England ratifies the treaty, canal legislation will be postponed until the next session of Congress.

It is understood that a large part of the opposition to the Hay treaty arose simply from a determination to delay and if possible to defeat any measure looking toward the building of the canal. Direct opposition is impossible because of the great public demand for the waterway. But indirect opposition is equally effective and can be exerted in many different ways. Dilatory and objectionable amendments of the treaty please the holders of both Panama and transcontinental railroad securities.

The treaty in its present terms is self-contradictory, and it is a challenge to Great Britain as a North American power. If Great Britain be willing to give up whatever treaty rights she may have in Central America, such a renunciation will be distinctly to our advantage and is distinctly desirable. But if she do not choose to do so, it is absurd if not criminal to postpone the cutting of the canal in the effort to secure such a concession from England.

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A SHORT GUIDE TO NEW BOOKS

The Transit of Civilization.

DR. EDWARD EGGLESTON contributes by this volume not only to American but also to English history of the seventeenth century. The work is of extraordinary interest and value, forming the second volume of the author's History of Life in the United States. Combining scholarly research with literary skill, it is a book for both student and general reader. It sets forth the mental and moral outfit and some of the institutions brought from England to America by the early colonists. (Appleton. $1.50.)

An Englishwoman's Love-Letters.

THIS anonymous volume of letters written by a young woman of twenty-two to her lover has provoked more comment and controversy in England than any other book for a year or more. They are written without reserve. They express, in fact, an ardor and a freshness and a fulness of affection that find few parallels in literature; and they are as subtle as they are ardent. An unexplained breach of their betrothal by her lover changes the note of high joy to one of pathetic despair. She continues to write letters to him (which were not sent) till her death. The literary quality of the letters is as noteworthy as their content. Their genuineness is vouched for by the English publisher, Mr. John Murray. (Doubleday, Page. $1.50.)

Quisanté.

ANTHONY HOPE'S new novel is a surprise and a delight. It develops far greater power than he has ever shown before, and marks him as a master of fiction. Nothing but character engages our attention; there is no plot or incident, only the collision of personalities and moral forces, and yet the interest is unflagging and even intense. This is a true psychological novel, yet without heaviness and with a saving vein of humor. Sharpness of conception and structural perfection, not wire-drawn subtility, give it distinction; it is a work of dramatic imagination. (Stokes. $1.50.)

The Siege of Peking

THE REV. DR. W. A. P. MARTIN, President of the Chinese Imperial University, after fifty years of labor for the Chinese as missionary, teacher, and reformer, shared the sufferings of the besieged legationers. With rifle still strapped across his breast, he arrived in New York in a state of mind not far removed from that of Saul of Tarsus, and dictated this valuable account of the siege, the causes of the anti-foreign outbreak and present conditions. The actual siege occupies only about fifty pages of the book. From past events Dr. Martin concludes that foreigners can easily govern the Chinese, and urges severe measures, spheres of influence, and the acquisition of a *point d'appui* by the United States. He regrets that America did not join in the attack on the Taku forts. He prints some important documents, and altogether adds considerably to our information. (Revell. $1.00.)

The Furniture of Our Forefathers.

"THE FURNITURE OF OUR FOREFATHERS" makes its appearance with the first of eight promised parts, each of which is to treat a chronological and sectional division of the subject. It is a remarkably handsome publication, with large type, fine paper, and wide margins, with three photogravures, sixteen large halftones, and a score of pen drawings, all from photographs, the whole enclosed in stiff blue paper with buff stamping. Its object, directly indicated by its title, is to gather together the facts about the furniture in use in America from the earliest settlement down to the era of machine-made pieces; and, in accordance with the schedule, this initial part describes the carved oak and walnut pieces of the seventeenth century, which preceded the mahogany, that to many people alone represents "antiques." The author, Miss Esther Singleton, incidentally throws some interesting light upon the social condition and manner of living of the earlier settlers, many of whom brought over from England the handsomest and most expensive beds, court cupboards, tables and chairs. While the material has plainly not been thoroughly digested by the author, the data she presents from original sources — wills, inventories, memoirs, and the like — is very instructive to the student. The promise is made that future parts will offer many considerations which will save the amateur buyer from being fleeced so easily by those who make antiques to demand. The notes on the very interesting pictures, written by Mr. Russell Sturgis, offer many suggestive points from the standpoint of decorative art, showing the development of special designs, and tracing out many artistic influences which particular pieces exhibit. (Doubleday, Page. $2.00 a part.)

Falaise, the Town of the Conqueror.

MRS. ANNA BOWMAN DODD returns to the land of her earlier "Three Normandy Inns," describing with light and picturesque touch the old town in which William the Conqueror was born, and making flying excur-

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sions into history and myth. Paper with the stiffness and glaze of cardboard and a volume which weighs in the hand like lead is the price for reproductions of good illustrative camera shots. (Little, Brown. $2.00.)

Sir Arthur Sullivan.

ARTHUR LAWRENCE writes what, in spite of some defects, is likely to remain the recognized biography of Sir Arthur, who himself furnished much of the material, and revised the proofs. The sub-title is "Life History, Letters, and Reminiscences," but the letters are all too few, and the reminiscences might be better told. Sullivan was from early infancy almost a prodigy of musical talent, and the life records a career of early and ascending professional success due to natural gifts, application, and an astonishing readiness of invention and rapidity of work; but we get too little of the personality of the man. The flow of irrelevant facility combines with wide margins and open types to make a bulky though not heavy volume. A number of good portraits and interesting fac-similes of original scores and letters are included. (Stone. $3.50.)

Wilderness Ways.

WILLIAM J. LONG shows himself a true woodsman, naturalist, and lover of wild things big and little. The man who hunts bear without a gun, steals on lynx kittens to see them play and leaves them unharmed, and climbs three hundred feet of sheer cliff with two eagles threatening him, in order to look on their nestlings, proves both his courage and his enthusiasm. One would have to search far to find anything to surpass the intimate sympathy and gift of observation shown by this unpretentious but wholly charming little volume. (Ginn. $0.45.)

The Individual.

PROFESSOR NATHANIEL SOUTHGATE SHALER of Harvard is the author of this "study of life and death" — the work of a scientist, but not, properly speaking, a scientific work. It is rather the setting forth of a naturalist's beliefs regarding man, duty, and immortality. Much of it is frankly speculative; some of it is nearer to poetry than to science; but it is informed throughout by scientific thought, lacking some initiation into which the reader will find a good deal that is hardly comprehensible. A serious, stimulating, and in some ways practically helpful book, affecting both religion and conduct. (Appleton. $1.50.)

The Life of Edward FitzGerald

JOHN GLYDE'S biography of the translator of Omar Khayyám is not as good as it ought be, but it comes first, though tardily, into the field, and contains much interesting and amusing matter. FitzGerald's life was so extraordinary in its solitude and uneventfulness that it left something of a paucity of material, which perhaps explains the padding. But the eccentric yet rare and sincere soul of the friend of Tennyson, Spedding, Thackeray, and Carlyle shines forth from the anecdotic narrative. (Stone, $2.00.)

Oriental Rugs.

MR. JOHN KIMBERLEY MUMFORD'S book deserves the highest praise. It is planned intelligently, and written with skill. The plates are very beautiful. We can recall no color-reproductions which equal them in their fidelity to the originals. The work becomes at once the authority on its subject. No book for general use approaching it in value has heretofore been published on rugs. (Scribner. $7.50 net.)

Between the Andes and the Ocean.

WILLIAM ELEROY CURTIS republishes in a bulky volume, with an atrocious cover, an account of a journey along the west coast of South America, which first appeared in the Chicago *Record*. He writes entertainingly, and has gathered together a great deal of miscellaneous information, not always critically sifted, concerning the countries visited. (Stone. $2.50.)

Thrilling Days in Army Life.

GENERAL GEORGE A. FORSYTH, U. S. A., here recounts some of his experiences in Indian fighting and in the Civil War. As Sheridan's aide he bore him company on the famous ride from Winchester, and was present at Appomattox Court House when Lee surrendered. His most stirring narrative, however, is of a desperate fight, with only fifty scouts, against over a thousand Sioux and Cheyenne warriors, in which he barely escaped Custer's fate. (Harpers. $1.50.)

Lessons in Love.

MRS. KATRINA TRASK brings together under this title eight short stories of love and marriage. Four of them are hardly more than conventional, but all are agreeable, and when the author is at her best she shows delicate skill in developing the contrasts of masculine and feminine character and conduct. (Harpers. $1.25.)

A Treasury of Canadian Verse.

THEODORE H. RAND edits, with brief biographical notes, this anthology of provincial poetry. Most of the writers are little known; of the 134 represented many are allowed only a single poem. The editor's work seems conscientiously done; the volume, if not inspired, is pleasant, and the collection was worth making. The colorlessness of the volume as a whole shows how literary and how little local was the impulse of the writers; much of the verse might have come from Texas or Australia, as well as Canada. But the general level is respectable, and some of the pieces admirable. Canada has no need to be ashamed of the showing for her which the whole makes. (Dutton. $2.00.)

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Military Reminiscences of the Civil War.

MAJ.-GEN. JACOB DOLSON COX had completed the preparation of this important contribution to our knowledge of the Civil War before his death last summer. His accurate, painstaking, just, and well-written narrative covers its whole period, and is of the first value to the student of its history. (Scribner. 2 vols. $6.00 net.)

The Soft Side.

HENRY JAMES unravels psychological complications with his extremest irony and subtlety in these dozen short stories. The seeker after intellectual diversion will find them good brain exercise, for they are too brilliantly clever not to be interesting, even though somewhat bloodless and overrefined. (Macmillan. $1.50.)

A Study of Christian Missions.

THE REV. DR. WILLIAM NEWTON CLARKE reviews the present conditions and future prospects of missions in the light of modern thought. His discussion is broad, sane, and honest. It is refreshing to read a book about missions which admits that the Christian world is probably not yet morally strong enough to overthrow Mohammedanism, declares that missionaries should study comparative religion, accepts evolutionary conceptions of race development, and points out the danger of concealing from the heathen the results of the higher criticism. (Scribner. $1.25.)

Verbeck of Japan.

DR. WILLIAM ELIOT GRIFFIS has written a sympathetic and interesting biography of the famous missionary, Guido Verbeck, whose forty years' labors did much to bring about "renovated Japan" — his childhood and youth in Holland, his early manhood as civil engineer and theological student in the United States, and the rest of his life in Japan. But it is less a record of facts, than a luminous portrait of "a citizen of no country," "a life story of foundation work." (Revell. $1.50.)

The Mushroom Book.

THE "Mushroom Book" is designed not only to give peace of mind to the ardent mycophagist who wishes to eat mushrooms of his own picking, yet has dim terrors of "toadstools," but also to act as a sort of popular introduction to the vast army of fungi, whose full tale no man can make up. While its first appeal therefore is gastronomic and utilitarian, it belongs with the nature study books which now form such a large and hopeful portion of each year's flood of books. Miss Marshall, the author, has had the assistance and advice of several of the few American specialists who have sound knowledge of American fungi, and her work is accurate and painstaking. The 48 full-page plates, half of them in color, are a feature of the volume and bind it to the series of nature books with illustrations "photographed in color from life" issued by these publishers. While these colored reproductions exhibit some of the well-known defects of the "three-color" process, they are invaluable as an easy and simple means of identification; and the original photographs made by Mr. J. A. Anderson and colored by his daughter are extraordinarily beautiful and effective; they are part of the series which attracted so much attention when exhibited at the Mycological Club a year or so ago; and they prove anew how much superior an adequately handled camera is for such purposes to the best and most careful artist. (Doubleday, Page. $3.00 net.)

The Thirteen Colonies.

HELEN AINSLEE SMITH'S "The Thirteen Colonies," in the Story of the Nations series, is a conscientious historical narrative of each colony taken separately down to the Declaration of Independence. Clear and interesting for general reading, without pretence of original value to special students. (Putnam. $1.50.)

The Darlingtons.

MR. ELMORE ELLIOTT PEAKE in his first novel follows the fortunes of a wealthy American family, the owners of a railroad in a small, growing American town — a book of distinct promise. (McClure, Phillips. $1.50.)

The Powers that Prey.

MR. JOSIAH FLYNT AND MR. FRANCIS WALTON have made a collection of short stories of crime and criminals, in which they present a theory — that it takes a thief to catch a thief, and that the criminal classes can be kept in check only by a semi-criminal police, who as the Powers that Rule use the machinery of the law to secure a share of the plunder from the Powers that Prey. Unpleasant tales of injustice, violence, and depravity. (McClure, Phillips. $1.25.)

The Essays of Francis Bacon.

PROFESSOR GEORGE E. WOODBERRY has written the introduction to this volume of the tastefully manufactured series of Century classics, and he has written it very well. The series is convenient, attractive, well edited, and cheap. (Century. $1.00.)

Glimpses of Three Nations.

THE late G. W. Steevens's short newspaper articles on different aspects of London, Paris, and Berlin are clever and entertaining sketches of street and market place, for he was a picturesque writer and a keen observer. But this is only good newspaper work. (Dodd, Mead. $1.50.)

College Administration.

PRESIDENT CHARLES F. THWING has written a description of the American college from the president's point of view, and a discussion of its problems, especially of administration. A useful, practical book for all who have to do with higher educational work. (Century. $2.00.)

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The Half-Hearted.

MR. JOHN BUCHAN, a promising new English novelist, traces the career of a Scotch hero whose self-questioning and irresolute nature caused him to lose in love and in politics in his everyday life at home; but, when he was sent on a dangerous mission to the Indian frontier, to protect British territory from a Russian foray, he forgot himself, and the stress of a great patriotic duty and the necessity for action made a man and a hero of him. It is a good story. (Houghton, Mifflin. $1.50.)

Knickerbocker's History of New York.

IRVING'S masterpiece of humor, beautifully illustrated by Maxfield Parrish, and printed on a large page in legible Morris type with wide margins, is an attractive volume. (Russell. $3.75.)

The Strenuous Life.

MR. THEODORE ROOSEVELT has put into this compact volume thirteen essays and addresses on strenuous and patriotic subjects: "The Strenuous Life," "Expansion and Peace," "Civic Helpfulness," "The American Boy," "Military Preparedness and Unpreparedness," "Admiral Dewey," "Grant," etc. They have the straightforward method, earnestness, and ring of sincerity of the man who wrote them. (Century. $1.50.)

Yankee Enchantments.

MR. CHARLES BATTELL LOOMIS tells tales of fairies that may be found in New York City, in New Jersey, and Connecticut, to say nothing of Long Island. Of the forty illustrations he himself says, "I wish I might have seen the illustrations before I told the stories, because then the stories would have been twice as good." (McClure, Phillips. $1.25.)

The Circular Study.

ANNA KATHARINE GREEN reintroduces Mr. Gryce, the amiable detective, and Miss Amelia Butterworth, of Gramercy Park, his amateur assistant, in this ingenious detective story, to aid each other in untangling an intricate knot of circumstance about a strange crime—of the same nature as "The Leavenworth Case." (McClure, Phillips. $1.25.)

Overheard in a Garden.

MR. OLIVER HERFORD'S volume of verse is clever, and transient, and of a piece with his former work. It is illustrated in his inimitable way. (Scribner. $1.25.)

Sky Pilot.

THE second of Mr. Ralph Connor's books of Western life, though not equal either in interest or in quality to "Black Rock," has the same healthy tone and high purpose. (Revell. $1.50.)

The Cardinal's Rose.

THE jewel which gives the title to W. Van Tassel Sutphen's story draws the American hero through many countries, civilizations, and adventures. It is romantic fiction of no permanent value, but it is interesting for an idle hour. (Harper. $1.50.)

Lavignac's Music and Musicians.

MR. H. E. KREHBIEL, the musical critic of the New York *Tribune*, has edited for American readers this most complete and authoritative manual of music. While technical and accurate to the last degree, it is so written as to be interesting to the casual layman in music. Mr. Krehbiel has added, also, notes on music in America. (Holt. $3.00.)

THE WORK OF TRAVELLING LIBRARIES

BY

GEORGE ILES

AS long ago as 1835 the state of New York established libraries in its district schools; the plan was widely imitated throughout the Union, and yet it came to little good. Of like sad history are thousands of other libraries brought together in villages and small towns of America. Often the first selection of books was unwise, the trustees imagining that what interested themselves must surely interest the public, while, too, there was much inconsiderate acceptance of the weeds and rubbish from dusty attics. Lacking the means to refresh the shelves with the best current literature, a year was usually long enough to exhaust the interest of the library for every diligent reader.

Thanks to Mr. Melvil Dewey, the State Librarian of New York at Albany, this situation, in 1893, began to brighten. In that year he commenced to send out to any community in the state a library of 25, 50, or 100 volumes, on condition that the books be safely guarded and returned within six months, subject to a nominal charge for packing, freight, and the blanks needed for simple accounts. At headquarters Mr. W. R. Eastman directs

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a staff competent to select books at once helpful and attractive; with each box goes a printed list, every title followed by a brief descriptive note. Whether a community is chiefly made up of farmers, lumbermen, or factory hands is kept in mind as its books are assembled. Adaptation is the main principle of choice. Just as soon as a library has been read it is sent back to Albany to be exchanged for another, and any special requirement of a study club, or other band of learners, meets with a prompt and liberal response. Eight years ago the smaller libraries of the state were stagnant ponds scattered here and there totally without plan; to-day we have in their stead reservoirs distributed with system and intelligence, all united in the quick healthy stream whose headquarters are at Albany.

There are now about six hundred travelling libraries in circuit throughout New York; in some places they usefully piece out the struggling independent foundations of small villages; in Plattsburg and elsewhere they have led to the establishment of flourishing local concerns. Mr. Dewey is wishful that small home collections of five to ten books may be distributed to farmhouses, much as similar libraries of twenty volumes or so have been introduced in Boston and Pittsburg. Indeed, this apostle of literature would have not only every household in the state, but every individual, lay claim to proprietorship in the State Library. He asks us to use the long-distance telephone whenever in emergency we may find his stores of service; and on moderate terms he proffers extracts from any book or document in his keeping at Albany.

Since 1893 the travelling library has made its way in Ohio, Michigan, Maine, Minnesota, Pennsylvania, Kansas, Iowa, and Wisconsin. In Ohio, during the year ending November 15, 1900, no fewer than 711 boxes were sent out, aggregating 19,505 volumes; the women's clubs, schools, and granges formed more than one half the demand. Proceeding upon a suggestion of Mr. C. B. Galbreath, the State Librarian, travelling systems are beginning to radiate from local centres; Columbus is in this way serving the rural school districts of Franklin County with 46 itinerant libraries. As far as I am aware, Van Wert County, Ohio, is the first in the United States to levy a tax for the support of a free public library. This follows as a condition of the bequest of $50,000 by Mr. J. S. Brumback for a library building in the city of Van Wert. The trustees have under consideration the sending out travelling libraries to the post offices in the county, where they will be readily accessible to readers. Where a state has the large area of Ohio, there is evident gain in making a county the unit of a travelling system.

Wisconsin is a community in the main agricultural and widely dispersed; its travelling libraries are directed by Mr. F. A. Hutchins, secretary to the State Library Commission at Madison, an officer of uncommon ability and enthusiasm. He has his reward in seeing benefaction after benefaction offered in furtherance of his aims, in seeing the spirit of self-help which honors so many little communities. The village of Jacksonport contains barely a hundred inhabitants — all fisher folk. Instead of asking the loan of a travelling library, the people raised a fund of fifty dollars and asked the Commission to buy a travelling library in their name, and to make their village a travelling library station. Mr. Hutchins's success shows the unmistakable importance of a State Library Commission — rightly manned. A community which seeks aid from the Commission may deserve aid; so also may another community, indifferent about the matter until a rousing voice stirs it up to feel what it is missing. The host is wise as well as kind who refuses to take "No" for an answer when he proffers helpful hospitalities. There is good authority for going out into the highways and byways to find guests for a feast.

Thus it comes about that with a depository of literature at the capital of a state, the best and most informing books may find their way to the boy and girl on the lonely farm, and bring equal light to the immigrant's home in the shadow of a factory or mill. And, happily, this trusteeship of literature enlists the individual citizen not less zealously than the state official. Sagacious and scholarly men give generously of time, strength, and means as commissioners, as friends of the new library movement; while literally by thousands must we count the unpaid servants of the people, who act as its librarians throughout the villages and hamlets of the land.

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THE MONTH'S MOST POPULAR BOOKS

REPORTS showing the most popular books of the past month from book-dealers in Cleveland, Los Angeles, St. Paul, Louisville, San Francisco, St. Louis, New York, Boston, and Philadelphia, and from librarians in Chicago, Detroit, Minneapolis, Hartford, Jersey City, Brooklyn, Springfield, Cleveland, New York, Buffalo, and Cincinnati, have been made into the following composite lists: —

BOOK-DEALERS' REPORTS

1. Eben Holden — Bacheller. (Lothrop.)
2. Alice of Old Vincennes — Thompson. (Bowen-Merrill.)
3. Eleanor — Ward. (Harper.)
4. Tommy and Grizel — Barrie. (Scribner.)
5. In the Palace of the King — Crawford. (Macmillan.)
6. Monsieur Beaucaire — Tarkington. (McClure, Phillips.)
7. Elizabeth and her German Garden — Anon. (Macmillan.)
8. The Old Gentleman of the Black Stock — Page. (Scribner.)
9. Rostand's L'Aiglon — Parker. (Russell.)
10. The Voice of the People — Glasgow. (Doubleday, Page.)
11. Master Christian — Corelli. (Dodd, Mead.)
12. The Lane that Had No Turning — Parker. (Doubleday, Page.)
13. The Cardinal's Snuff Box — Harland. (Lane.)
14. The Redemption of David Corson — Goss. (Bowen-Merrill.)
15. Wild Animals I Have Known—Seton-Thompson. (Scribner.)
16. More Fables in Slang — Ade. (Stone.)
17. Wanted, a Matchmaker — Ford. (Dodd, Mead.)
18. A Woman Tenderfoot — Mrs. Seton-Thompson. (Doubleday, Page.)
19. The Gentleman from Indiana — Tarkington. (Doubleday, Page.)
20. Crittenden — Fox. (Scribner.)
21. The Life and Death of Richard Yea-and-Nay — Hewlett. (Macmillan.)
22. Stringtown on the Pike — Lloyd. (Dodd, Mead.)
23. The Reign of Law — Allen. (Macmillan.)
24. Bob, Son of Battle — Ollivant. (Doubleday, Page.)
25. Hidden Servants — Alexander. (Little, Brown.)
26. Napoleon, the Last Phase — Rosebery. (Harper.)
27. A Life of Francis Parkman — Farnham. (Houghton, Mifflin.)
28. Literary Friends and Acquaintances — Howells. (Harper.)
29. The Solitary Summer — Anon. (Macmillan.)
30. The Mantle of Elijah — Zangwill. (Harper.)

LIBRARIANS' REPORTS

1. Eleanor — Ward. (Harper.)
2. Eben Holden — Bacheller. (Lothrop.)
3. Alice of Old Vincennes — Thompson. (Bowen-Merrill.)
4. Master Christian — Corelli. (Dodd, Mead.)
5. The Redemption of David Corson — Goss. (Bowen-Merrill.)
6. The Reign of Law — Allen. (Macmillan.)
7. The Cardinal's Snuff Box — Harland. (Lane.)
8. Tommy and Grizel — Barrie. (Scribner.)
9. In the Palace of the King — Crawford. (Macmillan.)
10. Elizabeth and her German Garden — Anon. (Macmillan.)
11. When Knighthood was in Flower — Major. (Bowen-Merrill.)
12. The Maid of Maiden Lane — Barr. (Dodd, Mead.)
13. Unleavened Bread — Grant. (Scribner.)
14. Quisanté — Hawkins. (Stokes.)
15. The Gentleman from Indiana — Tarkington. (Doubleday, Page.)
16. To Have and to Hold — Johnston. (Houghton, Mifflin.)
17. Richard Carvel — Churchill. (Macmillan.)
18. Rostand's L'Aiglon — Parker. (Russell.)
19. Janice Meredith — Ford. (Dodd, Mead.)
20. China, the Long-lived Empire — Scidmore. (Century.)
21. Wild Animals I Have Known—Seton-Thompson. (Scribner.)
22. The Pride of Jennico — Castle. (Macmillan.)
23. The Voice of the People — Glasgow. (Doubleday, Page.)
24. Sky Pilot — Connor. (Revell.)
25. Black Rock — Connor. (Revell.)
26. David Harum — Westcott. (Appleton.)
27. The Expatriates — Bell. (Harper.)
28. Stringtown on the Pike — Lloyd. (Dodd, Mead.)
29. A Friend to Cæsar — Davis. (Macmillan.)
30. Memoirs of the Countess Potocka — Strachey. (Doubleday, Page.)

Fourteen books are mentioned in both lists. Seven books, "Eben Holden," "Alice of Old Vincennes," "Eleanor," "Tommy and Grizel," "In the Palace of the King," "Elizabeth and her German Garden," and "Master Christian" are among the first twelve in each list and are therefore probably the most widely read books of the month. Of these "Alice of Old Vincennes," "In the Palace of the King," and "Elizabeth and her German Garden" were not so placed last month. There are eight books, not fiction, in the dealers' list and five in the librarians' list.

"Monsieur Beaucaire," "Elizabeth and her German Garden," and "The Lane that Had No Turning" have risen considerably in the book-dealers' list, and "Eleanor" and "Alice of Old Vincennes" in the librarians' list.

Books not mentioned last month which take good rank in the dealers' reports are "The Old Gentleman of the Black Stock," "L'Aiglon," "A Woman Tenderfoot," and "Crittenden," and in the librarians' reports, "In the Palace of the King."

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The Most Marvellous Wealth-Growth in History

THE real growth of the United States may to all intents and purposes be included within a century, but in no part of that century has this growth been more marvellous than during the past ten years. The contrasts of 1890 and of 1900 are greater in many ways than those of 1890 and 1850. Ten years is but a short time even in the life of a man, and it is but a moment in the life of a great nation, but in that moment the United States has accomplished more in adding to the wealth and power of her people at home and abroad than is recorded of any other country in the history of the world. The gains in territory and population are not as significant as the gains in commerce and wealth.

In 1890 the people of the United States used about 1500 million dollars as a medium of exchange in their domestic commerce. Last year 2055 millions found active employment in the same direction. This is a far greater gain in proportion than the gain in population, for the per capita circulation of this country in 1890 was $22.82, while in 1900 it was $26.94.

The national income used for purposes of government in 1890 was 650 million dollars, and in 1900 it was 1078 millions. The expenses of the government in 1890 were 630 millions, and 886 millions were needed for 1900. The increased receipts were from internal revenue, for the customs, owing to the comparatively small increase in importations, yielded no more in 1900 than in 1890, while the internal revenue receipts rose in ten years from 142 million to 295 million dollars.

There has been a great deal said of late in regard to foreign expansion, but the domestic expansion of the past ten years, which has produced such tremendous results in government and commercial affairs, is far more important to the people than any foreign interests which have been acquired. While the imports have remained about the same for a decade, the exports have increased from 857 million to 1395 million dollars, yielding a balance in trade in favor of this country of 545 millions, as against a trade balance in 1890 of 68 millions. The population of the country has increased 20 per cent in ten years. The importation of foreign goods about 8 per cent. The exportations of American goods 63 per cent.

The railroad securities of the United States have risen in value in ten years from 9500 million to 11,692 million dollars. The earnings of these roads in 1890 were 525 millions, and in 1900 they were 1336 millions, notwithstanding a marked decrease in freight and passenger rates which has taken place in recent years.

The mineral output of the United States in 1890 was 620 millions, and in 1900 it was 1000 millions. One item of this output, that of fuel, rose from 231 to 350 million dollars in that time.

Instances of this kind might be continued without end. This increase in productiveness is all the more remarkable that it has not been accompanied by any signs of overproduction. This is an excellent promise for the future continuance of this rapid ratio of growth. It is a guarantee that the great increase in population which is to come in the next quarter of a century will find plenty to eat, plenty to wear, and plenty to do, in the fulfilment of the law that man must live by toil.

The Metal Product as an Index to Prosperity

NO more sensitive indicator could be found of the industrial life of a nation like our own than the development of its metallic resources, and especially those which constitute the staple materials for its manufacturing and commercial life. Iron and copper are now in this respect of such preëminent importance that other metals by comparison become almost insignificant. Inasmuch as the ore deposits of these metals within the domain of the United States are (in the light of present knowledge) greater than the deposits of the same metals in the entire remaining territory of the globe, their development in any given year will depend but little upon the accidents of fortune, and almost entirely upon the demands of the market. These demands may be indicated even better in the prices

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paid than in the amount produced, since the total value of metallic products rather than the amount produced is especially significant.

The figures just issued by the Chief of the Division of Mining and Mineral Resources of the United States Geological Survey for the years from 1890 to 1899, show the value of the metallic products.

VALUE OF METALLIC PRODUCTS, IN MILLIONS OF DOLLARS

1890	306	1895	282
1891	300	1896	288
1892	308	1897	302
1893	250	1898	343
1894	218	1899	527

From 1890 until 1893 the value of the product remained practically constant. The effect of the great financial depression is indicated in the falling off from a value of 308 millions in 1892 to 250 millions in 1893. There was a further notable drop in 1894, and the product of 1892 was not again approached until 1897. There was a large gain (over 13 per cent) in 1898, the year of the Spanish-American war, but the spirit of expansion which then became dominant was first clearly shown in the returns of 1899, when the increase was between 53 and 54 per cent — something quite unparalleled in the history of mining.

This amazing increase (92 per cent) is to be ascribed almost entirely to the two metals, iron and copper. The production of pig iron in the United States in 1898 was valued at 117 millions of dollars and in 1899 at 245 millions — an increase of 109 per cent. The corresponding figures for copper are 62 and 104 millions (67 per cent).

In the same years gold showed an increase from 64 to 71 millions (11 per cent), zinc from 10 to 13 millions (30 per cent), and antimony from 184 to 254 thousands (37 per cent). Nearly all the non-metallic mineral products also showed a marked increase between the same two years, the total value of all such products being, in 1898, 353 millions, and in 1899, 448 millions of dollars, — an increase of 27 per cent.

The official figures for the year 1900 are not yet compiled, but the indications are that the output of metals will be enormous, even when measured by that of 1898. Together the returns of metallic products in the United States for 1899 and 1900 must be regarded as one of the most remarkable events in the altogether remarkable period in which we are now living. The great advance has been due in large measure to the sudden acquisition of foreign markets. The figures for 1900 will include a new factor, namely, a European market for our coal in addition to that already acquired for our steel and copper.

The Pressed Steel Car and Its Maker

ALL the world knows of the invention of the pressed steel freight car, and of how the business of making these cars developed in a few months from the smallest of beginnings into one of the great industries of the United States. In 1897 there was not a steel car in the country. In 1899 the manufacture of steel cars consumed no inconsiderable part of the product of our iron mines. The Pressed Steel Car Company at Pittsburg uses about a thousand tons of steel a day, and is something like $17,000,000 behind its orders. Its capital is $25,000,000, and it employs 10,000 men.

The world does not know, however, that this huge concern, which is piling up fortunes for its owners, which gives support at its own works to a good-sized cityful of people, which consumes in raw material the product of a great army of laborers elsewhere, is the creation, and therefore, if highly thought of, the embodiment of an extraordinary character. It was built up by the energy, courage, and sagacity of a man who began life as a cooper's boy, educated himself, married young, struggled for years to get a small footing, suffered reverses, and won his final success by sheer will-power, stubbornness, resource, and skill in the face of the most formidable obstacles. Work is one of the means by which a personality gets expression, and it is not giving way to vulgar materialism and dollar worship to make of commercial achievements also a human document, and to be interested in the dramatic struggle for success which has called into play high qualities of mind and heart.

The inventor of the pressed steel car is Charles T. Schoen. Aggressiveness and perseverance are qualities which he shares with other successful men; a more individual trait, and one which marks the largeness of the man, is disclosed in the fact that he has never paid court to fortune, but has throughout loved rather the effort than the reward. In wealth and in poverty this trait has appeared. He seems to think little of the money he is making, finding satisfaction rather in the thought that through an invention he has been useful. He has himself spoken of his "years of jocular indifference to failure." "Never in my life have I permitted myself to become disheartened," he has said, in telling about the ruinous outcome of his first independent venture. "A young man owes it to himself to retain confidence in himself. It bridges over seeming impossibilities, and enables him to face almost jocularly that which would discourage another. By this I do not mean arrogant confidence. But the man who possesses both confidence and modesty forces acknowledgment."

The son of a cooper living near Wilmington, Del., young Schoen was brought up to hard work.

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At fourteen he was already engaged at his father's trade. Naturally ambitious, and of stubborn stock, he fought hard for the best education within his reach. At first he went to a night school; afterwards, having saved the necessary money, he was able to study for a year at a neighboring academy, working from five to seven in the morning, and from five to half-past six at night in the cooper shop.

Married at twenty, and with $500 ahead, the cooper sought to better himself by going to Philadelphia. Here he started a cooper shop of his own, which was at first successful, then failed. Nowise disheartened, he went back to Wilmington and worked for years at one thing after another, misfortune seeming to dog his footsteps. At last he undertook to manage some spring works in Philadelphia at a salary of twelve dollars a week. The owner of the business fixed the price. The next year Mr. Schoen fixed it — one-fifth interest in the business and $1500 salary — and received $17,000 as his share of the profits.

Some months after this Mr. Schoen happened to stray into a railroad car-yard, and having nothing else to do, began to examine the cars. He was crawling under and over them when it struck him that the use of pressed steel in certain parts would both increase the durability and lessen the weight.

A pressed steel stake-pocket was the first invention. It was soon followed by others, and in 1888 Mr. Schoen started a shop of his own for the manufacture of pressed steel parts. "It was uphill work at first," he said of it. "The force consisted of four. I used to draw the red-hot plates from the furnace and pass them to my son and nephew, who were mere boys, and to another man to handle." But within a year the business attained such proportions that it was moved to Pittsburg, to be nearer the iron market.

As early as 1889 Mr. Schoen had designed a pressed steel car. In 1897 he decided to make an attempt to introduce his invention. It was rumored that the Carnegie interests were to gain control of the Pittsburg, Bessemer, and Lake Erie Railroad. Mr. Schoen pointed out to those at the head of this great iron business what a market for their product his invention would create, and asked them to take the initiative by ordering some of these cars for their new railroad. It appeared, however, that the report regarding the railroad was premature. But one of the company's officials, seeing the possibilities of the invention, advised the building of thirty cars at a risk. The inventor set to work on his drawings, but before they were finished the Carnegie people gained control of the railroad, and gave an order for two hundred cars, which was shortly made six hundred. At that time proper facilities for the manufacture of one car were not in existence. The order involved $600,000.

At the end of nine months not only had the order been filled, but a plant, costing $500,000, had been raised over the heads of the workmen — an amazing achievement. The next difficulty was to get orders from other railroads. Never had Mr. Schoen worked harder than in trying to prove to the officials of various lines the immense value of the pressed steel over the common wooden car. At last came an order for one hundred and fifty cars from the Pittsburg & Lake Erie Railroad, then one for two hundred from the Pennsylvania, and soon after one for five hundred from the Pittsburg & Western. The battle was won.

The strain had been so great that Mr. Schoen was compelled to go to Bermuda to recover from it. On his return he was gladdened by the news that the cars had established their reputation.

The Day of the Pressed Steel Car

TWELVE million dollars' worth of pressed steel cars will be built during the present year. The steel car weighs less, lasts longer, and has a greater earning capacity than its wooden rival. Thus, while less than five years ago not one of these cars was to be seen on any railroad, upwards of twenty thousand of them are now in use. The present output is one hundred and thirty cars a day, and the managers count themselves fortunate in having made a contract, extending over a term of years, for the delivery by the Carnegie Company of thirty thousand tons of steel a month, or about a thousand tons daily, including Sundays. This, however, does not suffice, for according to the present demand for cars they could use fifteen hundred tons of steel a day, if they could get it. The factory at Allegheny City covers twenty-four acres, and turns out from fifty to sixty cars a day. A little less than two years ago a farm was purchased on the opposite side of the river, and converted into a second factory, larger than the first one built, its output being seventy-five cars a day. Both these factories now employ treble shifts of workmen, and the American tendency to substitute machine for hand labor wherever possible appears in both factories, in elaborate equipment of steam and hydraulic machinery, compressed air plants, and electric cranes. The latter run at high speeds, the overhead travellers being capable of lifting a complete car, and whisking it from end to end of the shops at three hundred feet a minute. Hundreds and thousands of these purely American cars are being shipped abroad to many parts of the world.

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Running against English Traditions

TWO men in widely different branches of business recently gave instances of the difficulties of doing business in England if one wishes to introduce a new thing. One of these Americans was a manufacturer of shoes, a class of goods, by the way, which has lately been more tolerated in England. His shoes had a high reputation in America, and he labored under the mistaken notion that their high quality and low price would ensure their success in England; further than this, he proposed to place them on sale in the English department stores, so that the buyer would not be called upon to take any risk whatever. His first shock came when he found that it was next to impossible to see the heads of the houses with whom he wished to do business; they could be visited only by appointment, and exasperating delay involving many journeys to the offices was finally cut short only by letters of introduction secured from English friends. His perseverance was rewarded by a flat refusal to consider his offer. In vain he pleaded that he would stand all risks and would sell his shoes, which were better than any offered in competition, at lower prices, paying the "stores" a handsome profit; and further offered to put up security to guarantee his statements, proposing a liberal forfeit in case he failed successfully to carry out his end of the bargain and secure for the "stores" the estimated profit. The only answer that could be obtained to all his arguments was the civilly spoken but crushing observation, "I suppose this is some new American trick which we don't understand, but I'll have nothing to do with it."

The other case was that of a locomotive builder who sold an English railway some fifteen or twenty engines. After they had been made ready to run, the manager of the road came to the American and said: "You must take off those little houses or cabs which you have built on all your engines. The London Board of Trade will not allow a driver [the engineer] to be sheltered and cushioned in this way: he must stand at the footboard and have no protection from the weather beyond the customary wind-board." To this he added the final and inevitable English argument that all British-built engines had no such shelter and no change was desired. The American builder sought to convince his customer that the more comfortable the "runner" was, the more alert he would be, and the less his vigilance would be distracted by the discomforts of snow and rain. After much argument on both sides the builder of the locomotives gave his ultimatum, which was: that he would take back the engines or sell them as they stood, but he would not take off the cabs. There is no telling what the outcome might have been, were it not for the fact that the great engineering strike was then on, and the English road was in dire need of these locomotives. The Board of Trade being appealed to, after some delay, made a ruling by which the locomotives could be run with the American cabs, and they are doing duty on the English rails of one of the largest companies to-day.

The Swiftness of American Workmen

THE superior quickness of the American workman, even in the class of fairly unskilled labor, was shown recently when it was found to be more satisfactory, and in the end cheaper, to send to Europe with a shipment of American locomotives enough mechanics to do the entire work of erecting the engines, ready to deliver them in complete working order to the foreign buyer. In earlier shipments only the foreman and his assistants accompanied the machinery, and they in turn employed local labor to assist them, and at low wages. Experience proved, however, that the Englishmen worked so deliberately that American workmen accomplished the same task in about half the time.

The splendid achievement in securing foreign orders for bridges, locomotives, and the like, was started, at least, in the careful attention American builders give to the quick execution of orders. A short time ago there was received at the Baldwin works an order for nine locomotives to be completed within a fortnight. The first two were shipped within ten days, and all were delivered in the time named. How results of this sort could be accomplished becomes clearer when it is known that advancement in the Baldwin works depends upon merit alone. The utmost encouragement is given to the best men. No matter who the laborer may be, he knows that the highest position in the firm is waiting for him if he can fill it better than any one else. Seven thousand men are employed in the Baldwin shops, and, as the system of piecework is in vogue, the work never stops, day or night, the day shift working ten and the night shift eleven hours. Piece-work making each employee a sharer in the profits, it is not surprising to find that most of the ideas for economizing labor come from the men who work the tools. It is a common thing for a workman to suggest improvements in the tools he uses, offering, if the alteration is made, to do the job at a lower rate. The man by increased output earns more money in a given time, while the firm pays less for the completed product. "But," said a Baldwin official, "we never try to cut the rate so long as the man making the improvement keeps at the job. If he can earn very high wages, we let him earn them, for we consider he has a vested right in the improvement."

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These methods, however, are not peculiar to the Baldwin plant; they are also practised in the Pittsburg works, where have lately been built the largest locomotives thus far produced in America. Each of the locomotives in question, planned for power rather than for speed, and for use on heavy grades, weighs with its tender thirteen tons more than the largest ever built before, and exceeds all others in boiler capacity by five hundred gallons. The boiler to the rear slopes toward the cab, and, as its average diameter is about seven feet, it would be next to impossible to work about it did it not taper. The tender is as large as the ordinary locomotive of a dozen years ago, and holds fourteen tons of coal. These engines, however, are not considered heavy fuel-consumers, the amount of coal needed to run two of them not being nearly so large as was heretofore required to run the number of engines demanded by the traffic for which they are intended.

High Speed in Railroad Travel

THE announced purpose of the Pennsylvania managers to put on a train either way between New York and Chicago that will make the trip in about eighteen hours again calls attention to the advances in fast railway travel that have been made in recent years. These began ten years ago with the establishment by the New York Central of the Empire State Express, which covers the 444 miles between New York and Buffalo in a little more than eight hours. The same company, during the six months of the International Exhibition at Chicago, ran the World's Fair Express, with a time schedule enabling a man occupied in New York during banking hours to take a train at three o'clock with the assurance that he would reach Chicago at the opening of the exchanges there the next morning. A little later the New York and New Haven put on two trains a day each way which cover the distance between New York and Boston in five hours.

Since these initial experiments were set afoot great improvements have been effected in railway equipments. More powerful locomotives have been constructed, and the stiff steel rail has been adopted by most of the great trunk lines, while millions have been expended in straightening or reducing curves. Changes of this sort have placed the mountain-climbing roads on a fairly equal footing with those which run along the great valleys, and have prompted the Pennsylvania management to attempt to cut down the time between New York and Chicago to three-quarters of a day. Should the attempt succeed, there is little doubt that the exploit would be immediately matched by the New York Central, and these demonstrations could be depended upon to give an impetus to rapid railway travelling that would result in a considerable reduction of time between the Atlantic seacoast and the middle West, and even the Pacific coast.

Men familiar with the subject, however, believe that in the maximum speed of the Empire State Express, sixty-eight and one-half miles an hour, the limit has been reached under conditions now existing, or that are likely to develop in the future. One of those who share this opinion is Mr. George Westinghouse, who computes the highest rate of speed possible to obtain within the limits of safety at a little more than fifty-three miles an hour.

Future Speed Records on the Ocean

HIGHER speed records on the ocean, however, are probabilities of the near future. The fastest of these boats usually carries but little cargo, so completely does the motive power fill up her hold, and the total cost of one of her passages, fixed charges included, does not fall below $50,000. On the other hand, the total passenger fares taken should seldom fall below $100,000, to which sum is to be added the moneys paid her owners for carrying the mails. The lesson to be drawn from these figures is that passengers will pay a premium to travel on the fastest boats, and it is one that gives encouragement to the advocates of the four-day liner. But the latter, in the opinion of those most competent to pronounce judgment, will not be attained with the present form of hull and type of motive power. Higher speed with due regard for safety, the experts say, cannot be secured by increasing present engine and boiler weights; it must be attained by multiplying pressures and speed, and making all possible use of economizers, superheaters, and feed-water heaters. When the thirty-knot steamer makes its appearance, as it promises to do within the next few years, its motive power will probably be secured by the combination of water-tube boilers, using hot, forced draft, with fast-running reciprocating engines impelled by superheated steam, or with turbines of the Parsons type. And so great will be the reduction of weights and saving of space achieved by this change, that it will not be difficult to produce on a displacement little greater than that of the *Deutschland* a thirty-knot ocean steamer with accommodations for passengers sufficient to assure a reasonable profit to its builders and owners.

Quickened Methods of Freight Handling

MORE than a million tons of coal, not to speak of other traffic, is handled every week in the freight yards of Philadelphia. The greatest known anthracite coal field is but a short haul from Philadelphia, and from six to eighteen hundred cars of hard coal are daily handled in the Reading yards at

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Port Richmond, while at Greenwich the Pennsylvania unloads from five to seven hundred cars of soft coal during each twenty-four hours. Some of this soft coal travels long distances and reaches tide-water in a mass that must be separated before the car can be unloaded. Skilled laborers board the car as it enters the Greenwich yard, and as it passes up the incline, drill holes in the caked coal, working with such despatch that, before it has travelled a hundred yards, the bottom drops and the coal is unloaded by gravity.

Three hundred miles of track, all within the city limits of Philadelphia, are devoted exclusively to the rapid handling of freight, and, under ordinary conditions, a train of average size can be broken up, re-marked, and forwarded in twenty minutes. The Pennsylvania, to accomplish this bit of rapid transit, employs no less than twenty separate corps of men stationed in as many freight districts, but all working under one executive. The bulk of the work is done at night, and the thousands of varicolored lights that flash and gleam in the yards are an open book that tells of safety one minute and the next gives warning of danger. The great steel gridiron called "the yard" reaches out to every section of the city, and by tapping the belt-line and the connecting railroad touches every wharf on the river-fronts and many miles of private track.

The loading of a freight car is not complete until a card manifest has been signed by the agent in charge at the point of shipment. This card is the key to the cabalistic chalk marks that disfigure the car while in transit. The car, card, and conductor are inseparable. When a train of cars, thus carded and chalked, arrives in Philadelphia, it enters the yard at Fifty-ninth Street, where twenty-two city blocks are given up to the handling of freight. A local car marker takes charge of all cars as soon as they pass into the yard, and the legends he scrawls thereon would put the walls of a country schoolhouse to shame. Happily, for his subordinates, his scribbles and signs are uniform and can be readily deciphered by those who must execute the orders thus inscribed. For example, a refrigerator car laden with Chicago beef will be ornamented with a series of cabalistic signs which to the initiated read, "This car is to be pushed to track 29 after the cars marked A have been placed on that track. After six o'clock to-night this car is to be forwarded to Willow Street, where at least six more like it are ready for the same destination." These scrawls multiply, and by the time the car marker has passed the length of the train, most of his orders have been carried out, and the train reduced to six or eight cars.

Still another corps of men do nothing but get empty cars out of Philadelphia, and locate cars belonging to other lines that are on the records as "missing." Empty coal cars and oil tanks are not permitted to remain an hour in the yards, for they cannot be of any possible service, and take up track room needed for live freight. A train of coal cars is often unloaded in the Port Richmond yards, and started back to the mines so quickly that an arrival of the loaded cars and a despatch of the empties are reported to the general office in one message.

Sir William Van Horne's New Railways in Cuba

AFTER having reached the age when most men are glad to retire and enjoy the wealth gained by forty years of exacting work, Sir William Van Horne, the creator of the Canadian Pacific Railroad, has undertaken to give Cuba a new railroad system, which he himself describes below. The present writer once spent many interesting hours watching the day's work of this born builder and manager of railroads, who was then president of the Canadian Pacific. He had then completed the line across the continent, and was arranging for its complementary fleet of steamships to the Orient. Sir William's marvellous mastery of details showed itself to his wondering visitor in a hundred ways. The commissary department was gone into with a thoroughness which would have done honor to a New England housekeeper: the designs on the china to be used in the dining cars, the company's hotels, and steamships were examined into and decided upon; the standard size of the sandwiches to be served at the eating houses on the line was laid down in inches; he scrutinized the copy of a dozen advertisements, and a hundred other items of equally small import, apparently. Yet one carried away the notion that during his interviews with the men who submitted these multitudes of details for his decision, he was in reality training them how to make their own in future; and in proof of this, one observes that after his withdrawal from the presidency to become chairman of the board, these identical assistants were moved up the ladder, and to-day conduct the road in the very manner set forth in those interviews.

Railroad people will watch with great interest his new enterprise in Cuba. Will the road be dominated by Sir William's personality, as the Canadian enterprise always has been? There can be small doubt of the answer.

"The construction of this road," said Sir William, who has lately returned from Cuba, "is essential to the development of the eastern end of the island, and this fact has prompted us to face obstacles of a serious and unusual nature. Under the conditions which now prevail in Cuba, conditions mainly due to the terms of the Foraker resolution,

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all applications for public concessions must be referred to the United States military authorities, and we are, therefore, proceeding on the basis of a private railroad doing business on its own ground, right of way having been cheerfully accorded without consideration by the owners of the property through which our line passes. We are well aware that when our road is completed we shall not be able to open it for traffic without the sanction of the authorities, but we cherish the belief that by that time some decision as to the future government of Cuba will have been reached, or, if not, that Congress will recognize that the Foraker resolution is an incubus to industrial enterprise in the island, and afford relief. That the road will yield a handsome profit is absolutely certain. Cuba is the richest country I have ever seen, and the time will surely come when it will be the Riviera of the United States. Wealthy Americans will build villas there by the hundreds and enjoy an ideal winter residence."

When the railroad from Santa Clara to Santiago is completed, its projectors will turn their attention to the mining and plantation industries of the interior. Eastern Cuba is rich in mineral resources, and the land acquisitions of the development company in that part of the island are already large.

The subscribers to the preliminary instalment were, it is said, willing to take double the amount for which they set down their names, which means probably nothing more than the confidence of capitalists in Sir William.

A Plan to Renovate St. Louis

A NEW and greater St. Louis is projected. A movement, furthered by all the civic and commercial associations of the town, has been started to create practically a new city within the next few years. The programme includes the erection of more public buildings, more schoolhouses, the adoption of a better system of street cleaning, the improvement of the parks and the creation of new ones, and a general scheme of reconstruction, renovation, and extension.

All this will involve radical changes in the state's constitution or the city's charter, or both, because it will involve a large additional expenditure, and the limit of taxation under the present constitution and the charter has already been reached. Both constitution and charter are about twenty-five years old, and they were framed under widely different conditions from the present ones. The wave of Granger hostility to corporations and distrust of capital in general was sweeping over the West when Missouri's constitution was constructed, and the work of its framers reflected the passions and prejudices of that day.

The population of St. Louis at the time was not much more than 300,000. It is now almost 600,000. Constitution and charter have been outgrown. In the movement to supersede the present constitution St. Louis has aid from Kansas City and St. Joseph, the Missouri cities next in size to St. Louis, each of which has reasons of its own for getting a new organic law for the state.

The proposed renovation and extension would have been indispensable in any case to the city's well being, but the World's Fair of 1903 makes it imperative. The additional taxation can easily be borne. In proportion to population St. Louis is one of the wealthiest cities of the United States. Traffic by rail and by river made a large increase in 1900 over 1899, which was also a year of great business prosperity. By the age measure of Western cities St. Louis is old. It is not as old as New Orleans or Detroit, but it is older than Chicago, Milwaukee, and Denver. If these large plans are carried out, — and they will be, — when the city throws open its gates at the International Exposition of 1903, the world will see an old city made youthful and beautiful.

To Open New Land in Oklahoma

THE opening of the Comanche and Kiowa reservation in Oklahoma promises to be one of the picturesque and stirring events of the present year. Last winter Congress passed a law that the Indians should take allotments, 160 acres of farm and an equal amount of grazing land, and that the remainder should, on the President's proclamation, be opened to settlement. When the Indians have received their allotments, and sections have been reserved in each township for school purposes, along with 480 acres for each projected town site, there will be left for those fortunate ones who are first on the ground some 15,000 farms of 160 acres each. This offers to the land hunter the same opportunity that was given when Oklahoma proper was opened eleven years ago, and thousands are making active preparations to take advantage of it.

All the roads in Oklahoma are now crowded with white-topped prairie schooners bound for the land of promise, and every foot-loose man in the territory expects to join in the rush for claims when the time comes. Under the terms of the Act the allotment of lands to the Indians was to be completed within three months from March 6, 1900, but the Secretary of the Interior found it necessary to grant an extension of three months more. After that period six months are given for the proclamation, bringing the opening to June, 1901. The race will be to the swift, and it will be the last of its kind until the Indian Territory is opened sometime in the future.

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MICHAEL I. PUPIN, PH.D.

Photographed by Gertrude Käsebier.

Of Columbia University, New York, the inventor of a device by which the telephone is made of practical use for 3000 miles over land or under sea.

[*See page* 515.]

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THE WORLD'S WORK

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The March of Events

IT gives an invigorating view of the swift activities of the world merely to call to mind the great events of the month — the forthcoming inauguration for a second term of the President under whose administration the horizon of the nation has been widened and its commerce extended; the peaceful change of British rulers after the death of the best-beloved sovereign in history; and the rise among the nations of the Australian Confederation, — three events that call to mind the great part that the English-speaking folk play in the modern world.

In our own land, such a consolidation of great financial interests is taking place, as neither the alarmists nor the princes of industry themselves had before dreamt of; the sweeping conquest of foreign markets by our makers of useful wares continues; the announcement is made of an invention that may bring a new era in the use of the telephone; the giving of large sums to many educational institutions is noteworthy; there is, when this is written, a continued period of waiting for further action touching the isthmian canal, till we hear from the British government concerning the treaty; and the discovery has been made of apparently vast new oil deposits in Texas. The Cuban convention has finished its first draft of a proposed constitution; the time is reported by the Philippine Commission to have come for putting civil authority in the islands over military authority; and a significant reminder of the spread of North American influence in South America is made by the controversy over an asphalt lake in Venezuela.

In Europe, in addition to the overshadowing events in England, the Prussian court has celebrated the two hundredth anniversary of the rise to power of the Hohenzollerns — the making of modern Germany; the Pope, with the infirmity of extreme age, gives evidence of his wise thought of the problems of the Roman Church which his successor will encounter; and the French Assembly has excitement peculiarly its own about the relations of Church and State. In South Africa the British have suffered reverses, and the end of the war seems as far off and uncertain as the end of the preliminary negotiations in China.

In every continent the problems that men have in hand give chance and need for as strenuous endeavor as the best and strongest men are capable of. The "future historian," to whom we are in the habit of appealing to set down the events of our own time in due order and proportion, will be a hard-worked functionary when he comes to the months that are now passing, to say nothing of such longer periods as this year and this century.

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A BURNING OIL TANK,
In the oil district about Titusville, Pa.
[*See* "Among the World's Workers," *page* 558.]

A RETROSPECT OF MR. McKINLEY'S FIRST TERM

A GOOD measure of the distance that we have come these four years, since Mr. McKinley became President, is given by recalling his inaugural address, wherein he thought it well to speak in favor of international bimetallism; and soon afterwards he sent three monetary commissioners to Europe to inquire into its practicability. But events soon put an end to this parochial activity and gave both President and people something more important to think about than the small game of artificial politics arranged with reference to obsolete schemes of finance.

The President had not been in office two months before he felt called on to ask Congress for $50,000 for the relief of suffering Americans in Cuba; and other events followed swiftly. In February, 1898, the Spanish Minister at Washington, De Lome, wrote home a letter disrespectful to the President; he was obliged to resign, and almost immediately (February 15) the battleship *Maine* was blown up in the harbor of Havana. The people and our Government were patient, and refused to become excited, but their sullen silence was ominous, and far-sighted men foresaw war, and far-sighted officials began to prepare for it. In March Congress appropriated $50,000,000 to be used by the President in national defence, which meant preparation at his discretion; a report of the condition of affairs in Cuba was made in the Senate by Senator Proctor; the naval board of investigation reported its conclusion that the *Maine* was destroyed by an external explosion; on April 11 the President sent a message to Congress recommending intervention in Cuba; and on April 19 Congress called on Spain to withdraw, and authorized the President to use force; and in the same month it passed the war-revenue bill. Dewey's victory of Manila Bay was won May 1; Sampson's victory off Santiago on July 3; Hawaii was annexed July 7; the peace protocol was signed August 12; Spain agreed to our terms of peace on November 28; and on February 6, 1899, the Senate ratified the treaty of peace. In the meantime (February 4, 1899) hostilities had begun at Manila between the Filipinos and the United States troops. We found ourselves bound to keep order in Cuba till the island should become self-governing; and we came into the possession of Porto Rico and



TORPEDOED OIL WELL,
In the same district.
[*See* "Among the World's Workers," *page* 558.]

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the Philippine archipelago. Events had brought a new era in our national life.

While the Spanish war has been the greatest event of the administration, and the problems that have grown out of it have had a far-reaching influence on our character and our vision, there has been one other event of historic importance during these four years — the committal of the government to the gold basis of value. The present legislation needs fortification; but the first important step was taken by the act of March, 1900.

These two events will make the administration stand out in grateful prominence for a long time to come.

There have been many more public events of importance, good and bad, during this swiftly eventful period. The Supreme Court declared railroad pools illegal; the Senate rejected the American-British arbitration treaty; the Dingley tariff law was enacted; and the Disarmament Conference was held at The Hague. In 1898 South Carolina and Louisiana, and in 1890 North Carolina, following the example of Mississippi, disfranchised the mass of the blacks by constitutional amendment, and thus began a new political era in the South. Other states will follow. Even the threat of such action ten years ago would have "fired the Northern heart." But now the South is left to work out its own salvation. So far, the results hoped for have not appeared. There has been no division of the whites into different political parties, and the interest shown at the polls by the whites has declined.

The army scandals and the unseemly controversy about naval promotions are unpleasant to recall; and proper reward has not yet been given to the officers whose conduct in the siege and the battle of Santiago lifted our navy into world-wide renown. In his indecision regarding the Porto Rican tariff, the President showed the weakest side of his character. So, too, in at least one backward step regarding the scope of the merit-system of appointment. But, on the other hand, no President of recent times, if of any time, has drawn about him a stronger Cabinet than Mr. McKinley has had since Mr. Hay became Secretary of State and Mr. Root Secretary of War; and his appointments to important posts in Cuba, Porto Rico, and the Philippines have been admirable.



LIEUT.-COLONEL J. P. SANGER, U. S. A., Who directed the census of Cuba and Porto Rico.

During this administration, Mr. Sherman retired from public life and died, and Mr. Reed left the Speakership for private life; Mr. Hanna entered the Senate and conducted the second national campaign with the same business skill as the first; the Vice-President died; Mr. Roosevelt went from the humble post of Assistant Secretary of the Navy through a military experience in Cuba to the Governorship of New York and is now Vice-President; Admiral Dewey provoked the most enthusiastic reception that any hero has had in this generation, and afterwards showed how unsteady his land legs are by flirting with a political shadow — an indiscretion that his grateful countrymen have already forgiven him.

Following fast on our troubles in the Philippine Islands came the grave situation in China, throughout which the conduct of our State Department has been not only creditable

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VERDI,
Directing the first performance of his opera "Aida."
[*See* "The Death Roll of a Month."]

but commanding; and we have gained in international standing, by a series of events now too recent to need recalling.

The two achievements that stand out large in a retrospect of the administration are:—

(1) The awakening of the nation to its power and to its place among the other great nations of the earth. As Mr. Cleveland has very truly said, "Our country will never be the same again." It is not the same either in its own view of itself or in the view of other countries. We shall hardly return again to parochial excitement about bimetallism, nor be content with the home market nor with home problems only.

(2) The discarding forever of the cheap-money theory that in one form after another has plagued us since the Civil War.

If the country will never be the same again, neither is the President the same man that he was; for the pressure of the gravest responsibilities has greatly developed Mr. McKinley. He is not a man of imagination. A leader of a great constructive mind with such a series of events coming under his hands would have fashioned an administration that would have seemed heroic in its proportions and splendid in its achievements. But Mr. McKinley has rather lagged behind events than seemed to lead them. The seamy side of government has been too often exposed — the Ohioan, commercial, hesitating commonplaceness of it. The beef scandals, the military and naval squabbles, his indecision and early lack of clearness about the Philippine situation, — these are of a piece with the old dallying with silver coinage and the narrow gospel of the home market. A greater man would not have done differently nor better, perhaps, in final results, but he would have made the final result evident sooner. He would have shaped his administration with a better sense of proportion and with a better dramatic effect.

The President has shown his independence of judgment, but too often too late to get the credit for it; and he has had as large a degree of independence of mind perhaps as prudent men generally have; but his habit of feeling about in the vacancies of his will for a clear



HURRICANE OBSERVATION STATION
Of the United States at Colon, United States of Colombia.
[An outpost to indicate conditions in the western Caribbean Sea. There are now ten or more hurricane stations of the United States Weather Bureau scattered through the West Indies and on the mainland.]

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JACOB A. RIIS.

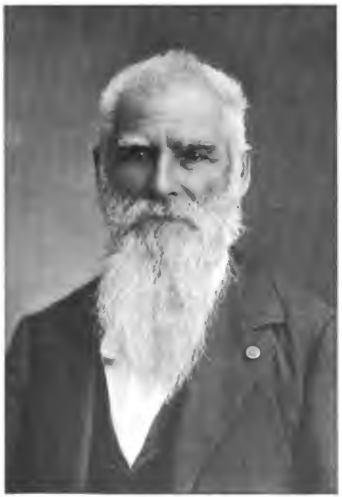
Author of "How the Other Half Lives," who writes, in this number, about the work of St. George's Parish, New York.

[*See* "Religion by Human Touch," *page* 495.]

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THE FIRST HOMESTEAD AS IT WAS IN THE SIXTIES. [*See page 475.*]



DR. DANIEL FREEMAN.

The first man to take advantage of the Homestead Act. He is still living in Nebraska on the same tract of land. [*See page 475.*]

purpose, and of doing a thing a day late, has sometimes left the suggestion of the party machine. The public is often unfair in its judgments, but it does like a man of decision. The public approval which the President undoubtedly enjoys has, therefore, often halted just before it has reached the point of spontaneous enthusiasm.

At the beginning of his administration Mr. McKinley's political opponents sometimes saw (and oftener no doubt thought they saw) his actions warped by his obligations to the most businesslike national party machine that we have ever had. But he has steadily overcome this tendency or suspicion. Indeed, it is by small appointments that he has most often provoked suspicion.

But after all the small criticisms of contemporary observers have been made, Mr. McKinley's first term stands out large with a noble body of achievement to his credit. He is already become one of our historic Presidents. He has held the executive office at the most important time since 1868 — a time of high value in the life of the Republic; and he enters on his second period of service with a distinctly firmer grasp and with a heartier support of the people — in short, a greater man than he was four years ago, at the helm of a greater nation.

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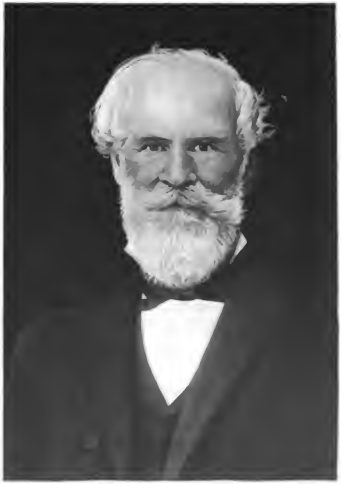


THE FIRST HOMESTEAD AS IT IS TO-DAY. [*See page* 475.]

THE MERE BEGINNINGS OF FINANCIAL CONSOLIDATION

THE aggregations of financial power that ten years ago or less awoke violent apprehensions were the small beginnings of the developments that have lately taken place. Not only have the great industrial organizations, of which the Standard Oil Company is the type, and in a sense the parent, held together and grown stronger, but the process of railroad consolidation has gone on to a degree hitherto unknown, thanks greatly to the forbidding of pooling. But all these events were as a mere prelude to the play in comparison with the purchase of a controlling interest in the Southern Pacific railroad by the Union Pacific. The allied if not unified interests that now control these trans-continental routes have unbroken roads from New York to San Francisco, by the Vanderbilt roads in the east, and a connection to Portland, Ore. It is by far the largest consolidation that has ever taken place. One control now exists of transportation from New York to Australia and the far East.

Most of these gigantic consolidations are the result of natural forces and of the activity of strong men; and the strong men become

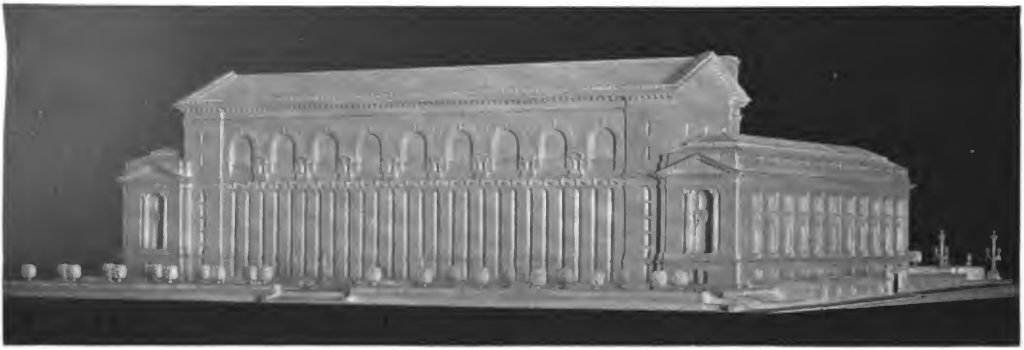


HON. GALUSHA A. GROW.

The author of the Homestead Act, who entered Congress in 1851, and is still a member of that body. [*See page* 475.]

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THE NEW BUILDING OF THE NEW YORK PUBLIC LIBRARY.

Front and rear views of a plaster model made from the architects' plans. The completed building, located at the corner of Fifth Avenue and Forty-second Street, New York, will cost, it is estimated, about three and a half millions of dollars and will house the libraries of the Astor, Lenox, and Tilden foundations and probably the New York Free Circulating Library as well. The work, already begun, will take at least three years for completion.

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more powerful with every successful achievement. But natural as these great results are, every man of thought has gone over in his own mind the obvious benefits and dangers of this universal tendency. Whether the dangers or the benefits be the greater, it is clear that we have yet by no means reached the end of consolidations; and they present the most interesting study that the economic student has ever had. We shall turn our thought and discussion to them again before many years, when we come back from the government of islands to think of our tasks at home, and when we are less busy with our foreign trade. But he is a wiser economist than any that has yet appeared who shall say what we shall do about it.

THE HOUSE OF DO AND THE HOUSE OF DON'T

EX-PRESIDENT HARRISON'S sharp criticism of the Administration's policy in the Philippines called forth from Mr. Charles A. Gardiner, of New York, a reply in an address that he delivered on January 16 before the New York Bar Association. Mr. Gardiner showed that "the policy of the present Administration is identical with that instituted by General Harrison" in the case of Hawaii. He went on:—

"When President McKinley issued his instructions for the government of the Philippines, he not only followed the Hawaiian precedent, but adopted General Harrison's language—he guaranteed the Filipinos a 'just and benevolent government' according to the principles and 'purposes of the United States.' And yet General Harrison now—seven years later—bitterly attacks his own policy."

Ex-President Cleveland, also, in an address before the Holland Society in New York on January 17, made a solemn protest against "headlong national heedlessness," and a plea for "the kind of conservatism that counts the cost," and that "lays out a voyage with chart and compass, and follows chart and compass to the end."

Mr. Cleveland's old-time political enemies were not slow to recall his Venezuelan Message, which surely did not count the cost nor lay out a voyage with chart and compass. It seemed even to many of his friends the most reckless thing that a President could do.

These incidents do not prove the total depravity of ex-Presidents. But the noteworthy matter of them is that in action both Mr. Cleveland and General Harrison were right, as events and the general judgment of mankind have proved; but in criticism how they ran squarely counter to their own good performances! Most men cut a respectable figure when they are earnestly doing something, but few men appear to advantage when they are telling how ill other men do things. Hedge it about with whatever trappings you please, depreciatory criticism is an ignoble business.

Yet, just as ex-Presidents in retirement are shocked at the "headlong heedlessness" of a President in action, who in fact lacks the recklessness that at least one of them displayed, so good men who would reform politics still think that they can affect politicians by abusing them, and learned men think that they can affect literature by criticising it.

The dwellers in the House of Don't hear the cheerful racket in the House of Do, and are sure that its inmates are gone mad. The dwellers in the House of Do pity the despondent prophets of the House of Don't, and wonder why they moan. Neither understands even the other's language. And, when a man moves from one House to the other, he straightway forgets the life that he used to lead.

CUBA—FREE OR NOT?

WE are coming to a sharp crisis regarding Cuba. The Cuban convention finished the draft of a proposed constitution, wherein nothing was said regarding the relation of the island government to the United States. The constitution provides for a government very like our own, based on manhood suffrage, and in every respect independent of every other government in the world. This constitution when it is ready must be referred to the Congress of the United States. What shall we do about it?

On one hand is the Teller resolution which is a part of our demand on Spain to withdraw from the island; the resolution is as follows:—

"The United States hereby disclaims any disposition or intention to exercise sovereignty, jurisdiction, or control over said island, except for the pacification thereof, and asserts its determination, when that is accomplished, to leave the government and control of the island to its people."

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GENERAL CHRISTIAN DEWET.
The leader of the guerilla warfare which the Boers are waging in South Africa. [*See page* 538]

A literal adherence to this declaration of purpose would require us simply to keep hands off and let the Cuban Republic do as it pleases.

On the other hand, the Monroe doctrine and our own responsibility for the development of Cuba and the Cuban people, and the assurance that we owe it to ourselves that flagrant misgovernment shall not be tolerated there, and a reasonable doubt till trial has been made whether the Cubans can make a success with a government wholly their own, — these considerations point to conservative action and to some form of control by the United States.

This is the situation in a nutshell.

AUTHENTIC REPORTS ON CUBA AND PORTO RICO

WE now have a large body of accurate information about Porto Rico and Cuba. The United States government has issued two handsome volumes containing the census reports, which cover social and physical conditions in both islands. So complete are these reports, which were made under the direction of Lieutenant-Colonel J. P. Sanger, that they are now used as a basis for the political reconstruction of the islands. Of the 953,243 population of Porto Rico only 75,000 live in cities. On this island, but 100 miles long and 36 wide, are 40,000 district farms, and one-fifth of the island is under cultivation. These facts are in strong contrast with Cuba, for there only thirty per cent of the land is included in the farms, and only three per cent is under cultivation. The average size of a farm in Porto Rico is forty-five acres, of which twelve are cultivated. Seventy-one per cent of these Porto Rican farms are owned by whites, and the rest by Negroes. Ninety-three per cent of all the farms are cultivated by their owners, a higher rate of owner-cultivation than the United States can show, where the proportion is but seventy-two per cent. Thirty-eight per cent of the Porto Ricans are colored. In Cuba, fifty-two per cent of the colored people are full-blooded. In Porto Rico, eighty-three per cent of the colored people are of mixed blood. The percentage of illiteracy in Porto Rico is very high — about 84. This is higher than in any other country from which statistics are obtainable, except Guatemala. The results of a census in the Philippines will now be awaited with interest; but this work cannot be begun until pacification is complete.

PROGRESS WITH THE PHILIPPINE PROBLEM

THE Philippine Commission has declared that the time is come when a civil government can be set up in the islands; and that the army should then be used as subsidiary — as a police force; in other words, that the government should be changed from military to civil government; and the President has recommended to Congress legislation looking toward this end.

In January an appeal was presented to Congress bearing 2000 signatures of men who were represented to be peaceful Filipino inhabitants, chiefly of Manila, that the United States cease its "persecution of men struggling to be free." The petitioners asked for self-government. The memorial was referred to a Senate committee, where it rests. Senator Hawley objected to a motion to print it as a document, saying that "it is a treasonable denunciation of our government." Later a committee of the "Federal Party" asked Congress to grant civil government, under the Commission. The difficulty in determin-

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REAR-ADMIRAL PHILIP HICHBORN,
Who retires as Chief of the Naval Construction Bureau, on March 4.
[*See* "Changes in Army and Navy."]

ing at this distance the representative quality of these petitioners goes far toward nullifying their influence.

But there has been in the United States on a visit Mr. Benito Legarda, a well-accredited Filipino resident of Manila, who was Secretary of the Treasury in Aguinaldo's cabinet, but who resigned when Aguinaldo proposed to set up a government hostile to the United States. Mr. Legarda confirms the Commission's report that there is a very real progress toward pacification.

The sensible way to study the Philippine question is hardly to listen exclusively to the denunciatory critics of the Administration — most of them men who have never been in the Philippine Islands and have no first-hand knowledge of the people and of conditions there; but, paying all due heed to these critics, to weigh carefully also the testimony and the judgment of men who do know the people and are trying conscientiously to solve the problem. Surely this is the method of common sense and of common fairness.

Almost every man who knows the Filipino people has expressed the opinion that they are now unprepared for self-government; the Commission, headed by Judge Taft, reports substantial progress toward pacification, and asks for enlarged civil power. It is a hopeful request. If Congress grant it, we can only be patient and help toward the slow solution of the problem by refraining from giving the Filipino insurgents encouragement by our complaints of the Administration.

THE ENLARGED HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES

BY the reapportionment act, after March 3, 1903, the House of Representatives will be composed of 386 members as a minimum. Twenty-nine members will be added to the present membership of 357. The states that gain one member each are Arkansas, California, Colorado, Connecticut, Florida, Louisiana, Massachusetts, Mississippi, Missouri, North Carolina, North Dakota, Washington, West Virginia, and Wisconsin; those that gain two members each are, Minnesota, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania; and those that gain three members are Illinois, New York, and Texas.

A strong effort was made to keep the House at its present size, but no divisor of the population was found which would achieve this result without taking from some of the states one or more of their present representatives, to which a majority would not consent. The new apportionment gives nineteen new members to Republican, or rather to sound-money states, and ten new members to Democratic states.

The British House of Commons has 630



THE LATE PHILIP D. ARMOUR.
[*See page* 540.]

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members, each representing 61,000 people and 180 square miles of territory. The new House of Representatives will have 386 members, each representing 194,182 people and over 9000 square miles of territory. The lower house of the German legislative body is the only one resembling ours in representative size. It contains 397 members, each representing 132,000 people. The representation in the lower house of the American Congress stands for more people per member than any other in the world. One effect of the reapportionment will be to increase the size of the electoral college from 447, the size in 1900, to 476 for the election of 1904, thus requiring 239 votes to elect a President. This change will cause some readjustment of political probabilities, but New York and Illinois and the adjacent states will still remain the centre of the quadrennial battles.

THE MANY CHANGES OF SENATORS

THIRTY seats in the Senate become vacant on March 4, and there existed on January 1 six vacancies, due to death or other causes, so that the year 1901 will probably see thirty-six new senators chosen — a very much larger number than usual. The Senate's personnel will not, however, show corresponding changes with the number of elections, for many of the vacancies have been filled by reelections, and only six new members have been chosen to succeed men of their own party. The reelections include Morgan, of Alabama; Berry, of Arkansas; Bacon, of Georgia; Cullom, of Illinois; Frye, of Maine; Hoar, of Massachusetts; McMillan, of Michigan; Nelson, of Minnesota; Sewell, of New Jersey; Wetmore, of Rhode Island; Tillman, of South Carolina; Martin, of Virginia; Elkins, of West Virginia, and Warren, of Wyoming; while Quay, of Pennsylvania, has regained his old seat.

Several of the new members of the Senate have performed previous service in that body. Dubois is returned from Idaho, after four years of absence and a shift from the Republican to the Democratic side. Blackburn will once more represent Kentucky, after an absence of equal length. Mississippi replaces Senator Sullivan with ex-Senator McLaurin, and Clark, of Montana, returns to the Senate after a forced absence of ten months.

There are several men of mark among the senators whose service will begin on March 4. Thomas M. Patterson, of Colorado, is a lawyer, but he is better known as the owner and editor of the *Rocky Mountain News*, of Denver. Joseph R. Burton, the new senator from Kansas, is the leader of what is known as the "young crowd" in the Republican politics of that state, and he is a man of force. Murphy J. Foster, who succeeds Caffery of Louisiana, has long been prominent in the politics of his state, and was serving as governor when he entered the contest for the senatorship; Moses E. Clapp, of Minnesota, has served several terms as attorney-general of that state, and is an orator of ability; Henry E. Burnham, of New Hampshire, is a lawyer of more than local repute, and has served on the bench of his state. F. M. Simmons, of North Carolina, is known to the people of his state as a good party manager. Robert J. Gamble, of South Dakota, has been twice a member of the popular branch of Congress. Edward N. Carmack, of Tennessee, has been an editor in Nashville and in Memphis, and he is now finishing his second term in the House. The junior senatorship from Texas falls to Joseph W. Bailey as a promotion from the House, where, for some years past, he has been a conspicuous figure on the Democratic side. Thos. R. Kearns, the new senator from Utah, is a mine owner who, within a very recent period, has risen to great wealth.

The retiring senators who will be most missed by their party and their friends are Wolcott, of Colorado, who is yet young enough to have much of his career before him, and Chandler, of New Hampshire, who is too old, perhaps, ever again to enter public life.

CHANGES IN THE ARMY AND THE NAVY

CAPTAIN N. MAYO DYER, who commanded the *Baltimore* in the battle of Manila Bay, having reached the age limit, retired from active service on February 19, with the rank of a rear-admiral. He was preceded into retirement by Rear-Admiral Kautz, and during the remainder of 1901 there will be other important changes in the next to the highest rank of the navy. Rear-Admiral Philip Hichborn retires on March 4, and will be succeeded as chief constructor by Captain

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LIBERTY H. BAILEY.

Professor of Horticulture in Cornell Agricultural College, Cornell University; Director of the Nature Study Leaflets, by which thousands of residents of New York State have first made acquaintance with Nature; author of many books on agriculture, which are at once practical and scientific, and are making a new era in farming; editor of the Encyclopædia of Horticulture, lecturer, and practical friend to all who live by the soil.

[*See* "Can I Make a Farm Pay?" *page* 548.]

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IN THE STUDY OF DR. RAINSFORD, THE RECTOR OF ST. GEORGE'S, NEW YORK.

"Heads of elk, grizzly, and mountain sheep adorn walls and shelves. The doctor thinks out his sermons under a battery of guns, any one of which has a story to tell of hardships joyfully borne, of danger and triumph." [*See page* 495.]

Francis T. Bowles, the first graduate of Annapolis to hold that exceedingly important post. Later in the year will come the retirement of Rear-Admiral Winfield S. Schley, and with it the promotion to flag rank of Captain Robley D. Evans, with the probable assignment to the command of the North Atlantic squadron. Rear-Admiral Evans will be only fifty-four when he first flies the white pennant, with eight years of lively and varied duty before him.

Changes not less important are impending in the chief posts of the army. Lieutenant-General Nelson A. Miles will be subject to compulsory retirement in August. It is generally believed that he will give way at that time to Major-General Elwell S. Otis, whose retirement in March of next year would bring Major-General John R. Brooke to the command of the army. General Brooke also retires in July, 1902, and since President McKinley has bestowed the additional major-generalships provided for in the new army reorganization act upon Generals S. B. M. Young, Adna R. Chaffee, and Arthur MacArthur, one or the other of these officers would, in due course, succeed General Brooke. Either of them is a man of vigor and capacity, whose advancement to the senior office of the army would strengthen the conviction that, in the future, merit alone is to govern all promotions in the military and naval establishments not subject to the rule of seniority.

THE NEW ARMY LAW

AFTER much discussion the army act passed by Congress increases the regular force from 27,000 men to a minimum of 57,000 and a maximum of 100,000. Enlistments are proceeding at the rate of 2000 a month, and recruits are sent to the Philippines as fast as possible to take the places of the

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volunteers, some of whom have already come home.

The army act contains several important reorganization features, notably a rotating detail from the line to the staff a point for which the Secretary of War has contended with determination. The new law has put an enormous appointive power into the hands of President McKinley.

The enlistment of native soldiers in Porto Rico and the Philippines, which also has been provided for, is the adoption of an English idea. American officers will be detailed from the regular army to command them.

The new law is the first radical and extensive change along systematic lines ever made in the American military establishment. Legislation hitherto has been for expediency rather than as a result of a harmonious design.

THE GREAT SERVICE OF THE AGRICULTURAL DEPARTMENT

TO revive a great industry and to change the character of its product with a handful of seed — this is what the Agricultural Department is doing for the rice growers. A few years ago all the rice grown in the United States was of the Honduran variety, which did not produce very profitable crops. The government imported some Japanese, or Krushu, rice, which is now used instead. The production per acre has been increased fifty per cent, and very large sums have been invested in rice planting in Texas and Louisiana since this change was made.

Not one of the plants producing our great staple crops is indigenous. During the past decade the Agricultural Department, through its importations of foreign seeds and plants, has changed the character of nearly all the grains, much of the cotton, and many of the grasses. Secretary Wilson recently said: "One of the marvels of the new century may be an orange tree bearing marketable fruit which will thrive in the temperate zone." The hardy *citrus trifoliata* has been brought from Japan, and is crossed upon the Florida orange. Three thousand of these hybrid plants are now growing in the Department garden in Washington, and if one edible orange is produced from this or a subsequent cross, the desired result will have been achieved. Bavarian hops and Swedish barley make better malt than the present American plants. Both these have been brought to the United States this year, and will be tested at the experiment stations in the states favorable to their growth. A cotton which is grown by irrigation has been brought from Egypt, and will soon be added to the field crops of Texas, Arizona, and New Mexico.

Of the $170,000 appropriated by Congress this year for the distribution of 28,000,000 packages of seeds for political effect, about $25,000 will be used by the Secretary of Agriculture to import foreign seeds and plants. This money accomplishes more for agriculture than all the money expended on Congressional seeds since the first annual distribution. In every state there is an experiment station. From Florida to Alaska the Department has at its command a garden or a field to test the importations on a small or a large scale, and not one of these stations is without its work to do each year for the general good of the country.

An expert who has just returned from Alaska reports many thousands of acres of the most fertile agricultural land which can be made available by drainage to prevent the descent of frosts.

But Secretary Wilson holds that the great work of the present year for his Department is the improvement of country roads. The United States has been divided into six districts, each assigned to an expert. The geological characteristics of the country are to be noted, and the value of all road-making material and the best kind of a road for each district are to be determined. This work will all be useful to every resident of these districts who wishes to get information or instruction in road making. Congress has gradually increased the amount of the annual appropriation for the Agricultural Department at the rate of about ten per cent a year. The total amount given now is something more than $4,000,000, which is spent in a most profitable kind of popular education.

THE DEATH ROLL OF A MONTH

THE death roll of the month includes, besides Queen Victoria, Baron Wilhelm von Rothschild, head of the Frankfort branch of the famous banking house; Giuseppe Verdi, the last of the line of great Italian composers,

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—the last, indeed, of the great composers of the last century; Professor Elisha Gray, an inventor who shared with Bell the honor of having made the telephone commercially practicable; Dr. Elias Riggs, the oldest graduate of Amherst College, and for sixty-nine years a missionary in Turkey; and Benjamin D. Silliman, the oldest graduate of Yale, whose active service at the New York bar covered a period of nearly seventy years.

Mr. Silliman's career practically spanned the century. He was a student in the law office of Chancellor Kent, the professional associate of Aaron Burr and Daniel Webster, and the friend in later years of Washington Irving and Peter Cooper. Morse, the inventor of the telegraph, he knew in his days of poverty and struggle, and he was one of those who stood resolutely behind Cyrus W. Field in the repeated and at last successful efforts to lay a cable under the ocean. He was one of the founders of the Republican party, but before that had been a Whig, enacting a leading part in the memorable convention which nominated W. H. Harrison for President.

THE UNENDING BOER WAR

ALL news from South Africa comes through British channels; and just after information had been spread about the world that the war was practically ended, the Boers penetrated farther into British territory than they had before gone. Cape Town itself seemed to be threatened, and British sailors were landed to throw up hasty intrenchments. Mr. Winston Spencer Churchill, who has been lecturing on the war in this country, declares that the Boer is to-day the most formidable fighting-man in the world — a declaration that General DeWet seems to be proving true. For the war evidently is by no means over, and the British must send more soldiers.

The vast extent of the territory is in the Boers' favor. General Kitchener must guard every railroad culvert from Cape Town to Pretoria and from Cape Town to Mafeking, and from Newcastle to Johannesburg. The very size of his army is a disadvantage, because it must be fed.

Well-organized warfare it is not. It is not a struggle between armies. For DeWet's force is a small one. But it is none the less a difficult military problem, for all that. The Boers mean to wear out the British army or perhaps British public opinion; and all reports agree that they have the most remarkable persistence that has been shown in war for many a decade.

Many men who have been in South Africa think that the British can never conquer them. On the other hand, they have no considerable army, and no formal government; and if the British grow weary of the struggle and give it up, — which is not the British fashion, — the Boers would hardly be able to reinstate their government. However it be regarded, it is not a cheerful outlook for South Africa.

THE SECRET OF GERMAN GREATNESS

THE celebration, by Prussia, on January 17 and 18, of the bi-centenary of its establishment as a kingdom was the celebration of the achievements of the House of Hohenzollern. Of no other country in Europe is it true, as it is of Prussia, and now of Germany, that it is the product of conscious will. German nationality, German life, German material civilization, have been developed by a succession of great men who were at first Electors of Brandenburg, then Kings of Prussia, and finally Emperors of Germany. Other nations have slowly crystallized; this one was welded, like a sword. We of the English race believe in a nation which unfolds its own genius, attains to liberty, and governs itself by constitutional forms. The Latin race likes an orderly, logical, ready-made system. But here is a powerful nation which is a historical yet artificial creation, the work of a house of hero rulers of the Carlyle type. Paternalism flourishes in Germany because Germany is the child of paternalism. Its history has not been, as England's, the history of a people struggling against the royal prerogative to secure their freedom and establish their political institutions, but of a people led forward by strong rulers to a foreseen end. Not the rights of the individual, but the good of the state and the bonds of duty, have been the vital forces of progress. That is why the Emperor can talk to his subjects as he does of obedience, loyalty, discipline, the greatness of his ancestors, and what he himself proposes to do, without making himself ridiculous to them.

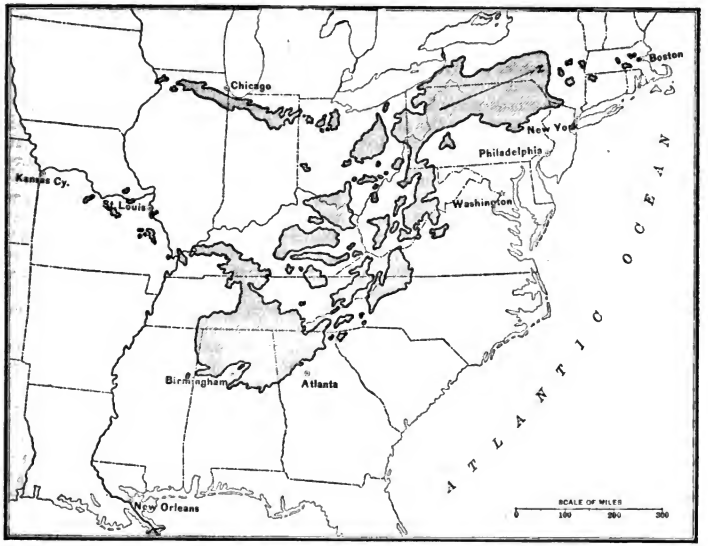
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The corner-stone of the Hohenzollern nation-building has been military power. "The world does not rest more securely on the shoulders of Atlas," said Frederick the Great, "than the Prussian State on the shoulders of the army." The saying was repeated by Emperor William in his order to the army on the bi-centennial celebration. By the army the Elector of Brandenburg, Frederick III., won the right to crown himself Frederick I., King of Prussia, owing no allegiance to the House of Hapsburg. By the army his grandson, Frederick the Great, raised his little kingdom to the rank of a great European power. By the army Emperor William I. brought about national unity. By army and navy Emperor William II. means to make real his conception of a world-power.

But Germany is not great by its army alone. In peace as in war, Prussia has developed efficiency. Its rulers have taken care to bring about conditions favorable to economic and intellectual progress. In these respects also they have planned and promoted what has come to pass. Government has meant to them the intelligent direction of the national life. "The strength of North Germany," said Arminius long ago, "lay in this, that the idea of science governed every department of human activity there." The same is true to-day.

AMERICAN AND GERMAN CITIES

GERMAN and American industrial development and trade expansion have been the great events of recent economic history. Both have suddenly leaped into the world's markets to contest with the older champion, England, for the trade in manufactures. It is natural, therefore, that the changes in the distribution of population in the two countries should follow the same



THE COMPARATIVE SIZE OF THE PHILIPPINE ISLANDS.
Shown by superimposing a map of the islands upon a map of the United States.

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THE PROVINCE OF MANCHURIA.
An idea of its dimensions is given by superimposing the map sidewise upon a map of Europe. The north of Manchuria rests on France.
[*See* "The Delay of the Chinese Settlement."]

lines. In both the cities have grown much more rapidly than the country districts, and in both the cities showing the greatest percentage of growth have been built up, some by extraordinary industrial, others by extraordinary trade development.

Germany takes its census every five years. The census of 1900 shows that the growth of the cities during the last five years has been much more rapid than ever before. Berlin, the largest city, now numbers a little less than 1,900,000 inhabitants, having gained more than 12 per cent, or at the rate of nearly 25 per cent in a decade, against New York's 38 per cent in the same period. But Berlin with its suburbs numbers more than two and one-half millions, and the suburbs have grown faster than the city. This percentage of growth, however, has been far outstripped by many other cities, especially by Nuremberg; and so far as our own census shows, no American city of over 50,000 inhabitants can match its increase. In five years it has grown from 162,000 to 261,000 — 60 per cent increase. That would mean 120 per cent in a decade.

But though Germany has only one city of more than one million, and one more of more than half a million, and the United States has three of each class, Germany has, in proportion to its population, rather more cities of from 50,000 to 100,000 inhabitants, and decidedly more of from 100,000 to 500,000, than the United States. In the United States 8,000,000 people live in cities of over 500,000 inhabitants, against some 3,000,000 in Germany; yet in the United States a larger percentage of the population lives in places which have under 50,000 inhabitants.

THE FRENCH STRUGGLE WITH ROMANISM

THE struggle of the French Government with the religious orders has a special interest for Americans just now, because we have to settle problems of our own with these orders in the Philippines. The most important measure brought forward this winter by the Waldeck-Rousseau Ministry is that regulating associations. All associations opposed to the laws, good morals, public order, and the Republican form of government are declared null and void. The significance of this lies in the fact that certain of the religious orders have been convicted of political activity against the state. With the passage of this law such orders will on conviction lose their right to hold property or to maintain a recognized existence.

It is the misfortune of France that the form of government itself has become a party issue. Americans who do not remember secession times can hardly understand that. The party now in power is called the Party of Republican Defence, because that is in fact the cause which gathered its members together. The Roman Catholic Church in France inclines toward Monarchy. It is not the Roman Catholic religion, but a dangerous political power, which the Waldeck-Rousseau Ministry is asking to restrict. Freedom of faith, it says, is one thing; freedom of conspiracy quite another.

Perhaps the most important provision of the whole Bill is that which prohibits even associations "recognized as of public utility" from possessing other real estate than that necessary for the object which they have in view. Such a law in this country would compel every college, church, hospital, or incorporated charity of any sort to dispose of all real estate held as an investment. The wealth in real property of the religious associations in France is estimated at over 200 millions of dollars. On the face of it the proposal seems a needless and unjust invasion of property

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rights. But it must be remembered that the Church is a continuing corporation whose property is never dissipated, but swells with the new accretions of each generation.

The English race is always strong on property rights. But when in the sixteenth century the Church owned one-fifth of the land in England, confiscation met with general approval. The growth of such a corporation is against the public interest. It would never be tolerated in this or any other free country, because it would mean the creation of a very formidable political power. An old French Parliament once laid down a definition of the Church, which was quoted by M. Waldeck-Rousseau in his speech at the opening of the French Chambers. It called it "a political corporation, the object of which is to arrive first at complete independence, and then at the usurpation of all authority." The Church needs to be kept out of politics. This cannot be done unless a limit is set to its acquisition of property. The struggle is the severest that the French Republic has had for a long time.

THE POPE PREPARING FOR HIS END

THE Pope's recent encyclical on democracy borrows added solemnity and importance from the fact that it may be his last official utterance; for the statement emanates from the Vatican that Leo XIII. regards the death of Queen Victoria as a notice to him to expect his own end. Copies of the political testament in which, according to this statement, he sets forth his views as to his successor and the policy of the Church in matters of immediate concern, but which are not to be opened until after his death, have been delivered to the members of the Sacred College resident in Rome, and sent by messengers to the foreign cardinals throughout Christendom.

The belief has been current in Rome for some time past that if Leo XIII.'s wishes control the action of the next conclave, it is not an Italian but a Spaniard who will succeed him as Pope. The prelate is a Franciscan monk, who, since his elevation to the Sacred College two years ago, has been known as Cardinal Vives y Tuto, and who



TIME'S APPEAL (FOR PEACE).

The last published cartoon of Sir John Tenniel, who retired, January 1st, from his position on the London *Punch*, after fifty years of active service.

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now holds the important office of president of the commission of cardinals for the union of the Christian churches. The Cardinal, who has resided much in Latin America, speaks English well, and has a more extensive knowledge of the affairs of the Church in the United States than any other member of the Sacred College in Rome except Cardinal Satolli, formerly papal delegate at Washington. No one stands higher than Cardinal Vives in the present favor of the venerable pontiff, who regards him as the prelate best fitted, both by capacity and inclination, to carry forward the liberal policy that has characterized his own headship of the Church.

THE DELAY OF THE CHINESE SETTLEMENT

THE spectacle of all the great Powers of the world setting out, under a mutually restraining agreement, mercifully to adjust the international trouble in China was an inspiring one. Reasonably soon the news came that the Ministers had agreed on the terms of a preliminary note fixing the conditions of settlement. Hard conditions as they were, it was reported that the Chinese envoys had promptly signed the agreement, — a report that seems to have been premature; for haggling over the terms continues. Still the hope has been kept alive that this whole unpleasant business would soon pass at least the preliminary stage of settlement. The better part of civilization insists that it shall be ended as soon and as mercifully as may be, and without dismemberment of the Empire. To maintain the integrity of the Empire all the Powers are pledged. And perhaps (for many of the daily despatches from China must be discredited) this good result at last is coming as fast as could reasonably be expected; for it takes forever and a day to deal with the Chinese character.

But two things are certain. The longer the negotiations are protracted, the greater the danger that the Empire will be dismembered. The longer the armies remain in China, the greater will be the indemnities demanded — indemnities that may at last be paid in territory — years hence, if not forthwith. The other certain result of long delay is the utter demoralization of the white occupants of Peking, — from officials to missionaries, — and the more complete demonstration to the Chinese of the bad character of foreigners.

No more commendable thing has been done since the trouble began than the proposal by our government to the Powers that the articles of agreement concerning indemnities and treaties be submitted to a conference, to be held in Washington or in some European capital. Some of the Powers withheld their assent, and the proposal was withdrawn. But it is creditable to our government that it made such a proposition.

The haggling between the Ministers and the Chinese envoys is in great measure over the Chinese officials whose deaths shall be required, — a ghastly business surely. The Ministers, for instance, were reported on January 25 to demand "a posthumous death-penalty" for Prince Kang Yi, who had already committed suicide! The impression of the Ministers that is given by many despatches is that they are sitting as a Board of Executioners.

Li Hung-Chang made a strong appeal to them for the evacuation of Peking, and he promised that all the demands would then be complied with; but of course the Powers will not withdraw till these demands have been granted. The Chinese court will remain in its place of refuge, and no direct dealings can be had with it. The Emperor and the Empress (the impression is that the Empress is still in authority) are surrounded with untrustworthy advisers as regards what the Powers demand, perhaps by strong anti-foreign influences. Evasion, contradiction, hesitancy, misunderstanding, superstition, — all these play their part in the delay.

There may be good reason yet to hope for an agreement that will permit the departure of most of the foreign troops and the return of the Chinese Government to Peking; but every month's delay makes such a hope harder to entertain. It begins to look as if foreign military rule may become of indefinite duration there, and that if the Empire be not dismembered, a part of it at least will be so pillaged that frank dismemberment would have been a mercy.

The report that Russia had assumed authority over the whole of Manchuria has been explained as a temporary military necessity; but the impression is that this great

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region will never go out from Russian control. It may be that by this method partition has already been begun.

THE NATURE OF GREAT OPPORTUNITIES

THE writer of an article in the December number of THE WORLD'S WORK about chances for young men has received a great many letters from those who wish to put themselves in the way of advancement to such positions of profit as he describes. A great merchant, for instance, was quoted as saying that he would give $50,000 a year to a young man who he thought could succeed to the management of his business.

It would be interesting if in this way a capable man should find a great opportunity, but it is exceedingly doubtful if such a result will follow. You can never know a man's working qualities till he demonstrate them.

In making the demonstration he is almost certain to build an institution around him which he cannot abandon. The rule is that men of first-rate ability do sooner or later construct something of an institutional character, whether it be commercial or artistic or educational, and thus find or make their own careers. Great opportunities are oftener made than found. They are the products rather of strong personalities than of exterior conditions. Another great merchant once said: "I want no man in a responsible place who cannot create more business than he can attend to."

THE MAKER OF FOUR MILLION HOMES

THE AUTHOR OF THE HOMESTEAD ACT STILL A MEMBER OF CONGRESS—THE SURVIVAL ALSO OF THE FIRST "HOMESTEADER," WHO LIVES ON THE SAME TRACT THAT HE ENTERED IN 1863

BY

RUFUS ROCKWELL WILSON

THE HON. GALUSHA A. GROW, of Pennsylvania, began his first period of service in Congress on March 4, 1851, half a century ago, and he is now a member of that body, a record practically without parallel in American political annals. Only one or two of the men survive who played an equally conspicuous part in the legislative battles which preceded the great contest between the sections, or in the formation of the party which carried that contest to a successful issue; no other one is still in public life.

His first speech in Congress bore the title "Man's Right to the Soil," and during the next eight years he introduced five bills embodying this principle. Each successive bill failed of passage, for the leaders of the slave states did not care to see the territories settled by a class of small farmers who, coming from the free states, would be naturally of anti-slavery proclivities; but when a Republican majority, pledged to the free homestead principle, chose Mr. Grow Speaker of the House, one of his first official acts was to appoint a committee which framed and reported the Homestead Act, which was signed by President Lincoln on May 20, 1862, and became operative January 1, 1863.

By this act, which, with the amendments adopted in succeeding years, is still in force, any head of a family (man or woman) or person who is twenty-one years of age, who is a citizen of the United States, or has declared his intention to become one, can enter one hundred and sixty acres of land, not otherwise appropriated, which is rated at a minimum price of $1.25 an acre, or upon eighty acres of the unappropriated public lands rated at $2.50 an acre—by which is meant land located in the alternate sections granted to railway companies to aid in the construction of railways—by paying ten dollars to cover incidental expenses, and after five years of occupancy such a settler obtains a title to such land. Under the original act, a man who had already settled upon the public land was regarded as entitled to a prior claim, save when Indian lands were open to settlement; and subsequent legisla-

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tion recognizes also a timber claim, by which the planting of a certain number of acres of trees entitles the planter to an additional area. Moreover from the first, land warrants, freed from the five years' occupancy proviso, were issued to soldiers and sailors (they being enabled to take up each a quarter section); and in this way upwards of sixty millions acres of the public lands have been bestowed upon those who served in the army or navy during the Civil War.

By this act a greater settlement of men on new soil was brought about in a brief period and under advantageous conditions than ever before took place in the world.

Not only does the author of the Homestead Act still survive in hale old age, but also the man who located the first homestead entered under it. This leader of the long procession of homesteaders is Dr. Daniel Freeman, who now lives five miles west of Beatrice, in Gage County, Nebraska. Dr. Freeman was serving in the Union army when the Homestead Act was passed; and he acquired a "squatter's right" to a tract of land in Gage County — the same on which he still has his home. A "squatter's right" was established by making certain improvements, such as the building of a house, and the fencing and breaking up of a certain amount of land for farming purposes. Dr. Freeman had built a log cabin and stable, had ploughed twenty acres, and fenced a considerable area. His claim was perfectly valid under the laws of the territory of Nebraska, but as it lay within the public domain of the United States, it became necessary for him upon the passage of the Homestead Act to enter his property under that law.

The nearest land office was at Brownsville, seventy-five miles from Dr. Freeman's holding. Being under orders to report forthwith at Fort Leavenworth, he left his claim two or three days before the end of the year 1862 and journeyed to Brownsville to locate his claim under the conditions which were to take effect on January 1, 1863. He arrived in the late afternoon of the last day of December, and in the evening attended a New Year's Eve ball, where he met the clerk of the land office, who told him the office would not be open on the following day because it was a legal holiday. Freeman represented the urgency of his case and the necessity he was under of going at once to Fort Leavenworth, and he begged, as a special favor, that his claim be registered without delay. The clerk became interested, hunted up the registrar, and at midnight opened up his office and issued Dr. Freeman's patent at 12.05 on the morning of January 1, 1863.

During the thirty-eight years that have since elapsed more than two hundred millions of acres of public lands have been entered and more than four million people have obtained free homes under the operation of the Homestead Act, while a tract far exceeding in area all the thirteen original states has been peopled. And the homesteader still has a long future before him, for of public land still remaining open to settlement, Montana has seventy millions of acres, Nevada sixty millions, New Mexico fifty-five millions, and Arizona a little more than fifty-three millions. The long procession which Mr. Grow set in motion and which Dr. Freeman headed has not yet halted; it still moves on, and its march will probably continue until the last available acre of public land has been handed over by the government for the use of its citizens.

Mr. Grow was a "Free-Soiler" when he entered Congress as the successor of David Wilmot, passed naturally into the Republican party at its creation, and as one of its congressional leaders was chosen Speaker at the outbreak of the Civil War. During his single term as Speaker he presided over three sessions of the House. One of them was a called session, which met on July 4, 1861, and ended on August 6. However, in those five weeks, when armies and a navy had to be created and ways and means for their support provided, and when the general policy of the government toward the seceded states had to be defined, as far as this could be done at that early day, more work of vital importance to the nation was done than was ever transacted by any Congress before or since that time. Mr. Grow was the directing spirit in these momentous transactions. "No man who was ever Speaker," said the late William S. Holman, "more largely or more beneficially influenced the general course of our legislation. He was a born leader among men."

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INCIDENTS OF PRESIDENTIAL INAUGURATIONS

SOME of the incidents which attended Washington's first inauguration as President have been absent from those of his successors. New York, a town of thirty thousand inhabitants, was then the federal capital, and the ceremonies of installation took place in the portico of the Federal Building, which stood at the corner of Broad and Wall streets. The oath was administered by Chancellor Livingston. Washington bowed, took the Bible, and, with closed eyes, reverently answered, "I swear, so help me God." Then the chancellor declared, "It is done," and, turning to the silent throng, exclaimed, "Long live George Washington, President of the United States!"

This declaration was in imitation of monarchial custom, the error of which practice was soon discovered and abandoned. Washington's dress on that day was a suit of dark-brown broadcloth, long white silk stockings, silver buckles upon his polished shoes, a steel-hilted dress sword, his hair powdered and gathered in a bag. He was dressed on the occasion of his second inauguration, in Philadelphia, precisely as Stuart has painted him, — rich black velvet, diamond knee buckles, square silver buckles on his japanned shoes, black silk stockings, his shirt ruffled at breast and wrist, a light dress sword, and powdered hair tied with a black ribbon. The oath on this occasion was administered by Justice William Cushing of the Supreme Court.

John Adams's inauguration, in 1797, was a farewell to the outgoing rather than a hail to the new President. Adams, in a subsequent letter to his wife, described the scene as, indeed, a solemn one. There was, he said, more weeping than there had ever been at the representation of a tragedy, but whether it was from the loss of a beloved President, or from the accession of an unbeloved one, he could not say. Adams was sworn into office by Chief Justice Oliver Ellsworth, and one of those present recorded in his diary that he was dressed for the occasion in a suit of light drab which well became him.

Adams did not attend the inauguration of his successor, Jefferson, the first to take place in Washington. The two men had quarrelled over some of Adams's twelfth-hour appointments to office, and the retiring President left the capital in a huff on the morning of March 4, 1801. Jefferson went on foot from his boarding-house to the Capitol, escorted by a militia artillery company and a procession of citizens, and the oath was administered by John Marshall, whom Adams a few weeks before had made chief justice greatly to the wrath and chagrin of the new President. The ceremony ended, Jefferson proceeded to the White House in the same manner as he had gone to the Capitol.

The most noteworthy feature of Madison's first inauguration, in 1809, was the garb worn by the new President, which the irreverent styled a "walking argument in favor of the encouragement of native wool." His coat had been made on the farm of Colonel Humphreys, and his waistcoat and small-clothes on that of Chancellor Livingston, all from the wool of merino sheep raised in the country. John Quincy Adams says in his diary that the House of Representatives in which the ceremonies were held was very much crowded, but that Madison read his inaugural address in a tone so low that it could be heard by few of those present.

Monroe's first inauguration, in 1817, was held out of doors, and this was the outcome of a bitter wrangle as to the proposed division of seats in the House, which Monroe had ended by suggesting that resort should be had to the open air. The suggestion was gladly adopted by a perplexed committee of arrangements, and, from a platform erected under the unfinished portico of the Capitol, Monroe delivered his inaugural address to the largest crowd that had yet gathered in Wash-

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ington. The inauguration of the younger Adams eight years later was a somewhat perfunctory affair, devoid of popular enthusiasm, but a long and imposing procession attended him from the White House to the Capitol and back again, his personal escort being a body of mounted citizens. Adams, who was dressed, we are told, in a suit of plain black, changed the programme of his predecessors by delivering his inaugural address before taking the oath of office.

Jackson was the first President to attract pilgrimages to Washington to attend his inauguration. His eager admirers swarmed about the hotel where he lodged in such masses as to make access to his presence nearly impossible, and on inauguration day a ship's cable had to be called into use to keep the crowd from the eastern portico of the Capitol, which was used for the first time for these ceremonies. President Adams, however, was not present at the triumph of his rival. During the late Presidential campaign the administration press, in Washington and elsewhere, had teemed with charges of the most infamous character against Jackson. Even his wife, a plain and inoffensive woman, was not exempt from attack, and soon after the election died of grief. Jackson could not forgive the men who had hastened the death of his wife. He regarded Adams as one of these, and on his arrival in Washington to take office, declined to pay the customary visit of respect to the President. Adams, stung by this neglect, resolved not to appear at the inauguration of his successor, and on the morning of March 3, 1829, quietly removed to the house of a friend in the suburbs. When Jackson was being inaugurated amid shouts of the assembled thousands, Adams was taking a solitary ride on horseback, and it was the artillery salute fired when the oath of office had been administered to the new President, that told him that he was again a private citizen.

Van Buren's inauguration in 1837, when the oath was administered for the first time by Chief Justice Taney, was a tame affair, but immense enthusiasm attended the entrance into office of the elder Harrison, and made it a memorable pageant. Harrison headed the inaugural procession mounted on a prancing white horse, which he had preferred to a costly carriage presented to him by some of his admirers, and though the day was cold and bleak, with a chill wind blowing, he stood for an hour exposed to it while delivering his inaugural address, thus planting the seeds of the illness which caused his death within a month.

Polk's inauguration, in 1845, though its central figure was in no sense a popular hero, brought out the largest crowds yet seen at the Capitol. The country had by this time become more in the habit of travelling, and railroads were running to the north and east, while the southern and western men would come, railroads or no railroads. An interesting contemporary note of this inauguration is the following: "Professor Morse brought out his magnetic telegraph to the portico platform, close to one side of it, from which point he could hear everything that went on, having under view all of the ceremonies performed, transmitting the results to Baltimore as fast as they transpired."

The three Presidents who immediately followed Polk did not invoke enthusiasm. Taylor, Pierce, and Buchanan were all expediency candidates, and none of them stood out for support because the people demanded it. Taylor was nearer to an exception than the other two, for he was the hero of a successful war, but with the party that supported him this war was unpopular, which fact lent a dampening effect to his entrance into office. As to Pierce and Buchanan, no one claimed that there was inspiration in either's personality. The pageant increased in importance as each of the two was inaugurated, but it was mostly a perfunctory affair.

Lincoln's two inaugurations hold a place apart, for, taken together, they preceded and practically closed the greatest civil war the world has seen. Grant's first inauguration was a tribute to the chief hero of that war — his second a demonstration on the part of the people to show him that their regard for his services and respect for his personal worth had not lessened, despite the severe criticisms that had been made upon his administration. Little need be said of the inaugurations of more recent years. Hayes came in under a clouded title which deprived his installation of enthusiasm; that

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of Garfield inspired considerable demonstration, and Cleveland's, in 1884, signalized the return to power of a party that had been almost a quarter of a century out of it, while four years later there was corresponding exultation at the triumph of the party represented by Harrison.

The numbers and the enthusiasm which attended McKinley's first inauguration four years ago made it a most impressive affair, and his second also promises to invoke enthusiasm. The tendency to increase the magnitude and imposing character of the pageant likewise continues.

THE RULE OF THE ENGLISH-SPEAKING FOLK

THE WIDER MEANING OF THE INAUGURATION OF THE PRESIDENT, THE ACCESSION OF KING EDWARD, AND THE RISE OF THE AUSTRALIAN CONFEDERATION — THE RACE THAT RULES ON EVERY CONTINENT BUT ONE

IT is a singular coincidence that almost simultaneously come the inauguration of the President of the United States, a change of British sovereigns, and the establishment of a new state by the Australian Confederation.

These three great groups of English-speaking folk are the dominant powers on every continent but the mainland of Europe, and indirectly they are powerful there. No race speaking one tongue and having essentially the same institutions ever before spread over so large a part of the world or held so nearly all the earth in its grasp. The sway of the Roman emperors was relatively as great, but so large a part of the earth lay beyond their knowledge that a comparison is useless.

It is significant, too, that the cordiality of the relations of these several stocks of the English is greater than ever before. The old-time enmity between the United States and the mother country may at last be called utterly dead — in the minds of all men whose opinions count for the future. And the relations of her colonies to Great Britain are closer than ever before, thanks to the colonial statesmen, to the great Queen, and to Mr. Rudyard Kipling's imperial verse.

There are not lacking prophets of disaster who maintain that the great Empire will now fall to pieces, because no king can hold it together as affection for the Queen held it. The long-drawn-out trouble in South Africa will at last bring defeat and cause a loss of prestige; the constant unrest in India will grow to revolt; the threatened break-up of China will close the door to British trade; the growing commerce of the United States and of Germany will take away the financial power of England; and the increasing independence of the great colonies will express itself in separation. Nor are we ourselves without reminders that republican institutions have failed in the United States; and we are told that just when the British Empire is about to disintegrate we are throwing away our liberties to follow a falling empire's example.

But luckily most sweeping prophecies are discredited by men who have only common sense and some knowledge of human history to guide them; and to most men whose judgment rests on common sense and some knowledge of history, the most prodigious fact in this world's annals is the spread and the rule of the English-speaking folk. And the most prodigious fact about the spread and the rule of English-speaking men is their conquering strides on the two continents where self-rule has had its fullest development.

The future is impenetrable; but no man of our inheritance can (for his own brief day) set his life and thought right who does not feel a thrill when he looks at the map of the world. The right measure of events whether past or future is always the race-measure. It is to us and to our kinsmen that the world now and the civilization that is in it are committed. To lament this fact or to doubt the beneficent result, is to miss the largest view

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of life and the profoundest satisfaction of living that men have ever had — the high feeling that this is the morning of the world and that the coming day is our own.

Such a view of civilization is necessarily suggested at this time.

The Queen's Unapproached Reign

The large fact about Queen Victoria is that, in a time when the world is fast outgrowing kingship, she so graced her royal station as to make the shadowy power of the British crown a strong and beneficent force throughout the whole world. It is this fact that may give her in English history a more illustrious place than any of her predecessors. Neither by intellectual vigor nor by her political power can she be ranked with Elizabeth, for example; nor did any crisis come in her long reign whereby English civilization was saved to the world from such a disaster of eclipse as was averted by the defeat of the Armada or the overthrow of Napoleon. But the Victorian age, though it lacked a Shakespeare, was far more spacious than any preceding era, and more things came to pass for the advancement of mankind. Indeed, when the Queen was born, the condition of the mass of mankind was more like its condition a thousand years before than it was like its condition now; and her name seems likely to become the symbol in history of this great leap in human development, as Queen Elizabeth's name suggests to us the poetry and the adventure of her reign.

But the marvellous thing is — one might almost say that the English have kept the monarchy at all, even with its shadow of real power; and certainly it is marvellous that in this past century they should have had the monarch of the longest reign and the most universal esteem in their whole history; and that, in a time of the rise and spread of democracy, the sovereign should have gained power rather than lost it, and have left the throne in more affectionate regard by the people than she found it. More wonderful still, the Queen was as affectionately regarded in the British colonies, wherever Englishmen lived, as at home. Men who on distant continents had planted and developed self-governing English settlements, had grown great and prospered, and had carried democratic ideas in government to their farthest extreme, yet held the Queen in a sort of personal affection.

Even in the Great Republic, where the very concept of royalty is foreign to our thought and utterly repugnant, we sincerely mourn her, and her memory is revered.

Never, in the life of any man now living, perhaps never again in the history of the world, will all civilized mankind come to have such an attitude toward any ruler.

The secret of the Queen's unapproached preëminence was that such power as the crown retains was not an obstruction to British political development nor to industrial development. It was just before she ascended the throne that the first Reform Bill was passed; England was just beginning to emerge from the period of the rotten boroughs. From that time to this, political development has gone on till there is now practically manhood suffrage. And it has been a time of colonization, industrial development, and foreign commerce. The royal power touched none of these, except as a symbol of national greatness and imperial pride.

The secret of the Queen's unapproached preëminence lay, then, also in her social power. In a country of an aristocratic social structure, a social head has a natural function. The social necessity of a court is great in practically every European country. When the Queen used this great and very real power so wisely and so uprightly, it was this that made her a queen in fact. Hers was not the first court of good morals, but courts of good morals have been few enough to make hers as memorable as it was beneficent. English society owes her a debt that can be paid with nothing less than affectionate gratitude. When the throne exercised the gracious social power that it came to have in Victoria's reign, it is small wonder that royalty took a new lease of life and influence; for all good women were beholden to her.

The secret of her power lay in this, too, — that she was a woman. It is inconceivable that a man on the throne during this long period of political transitions, of imperial expansion, and of industrial growth, however noble his character or high his aims, could have come to stand for English character

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as she stood for it. As the English people have grown away from the old belief in royalty by divine right or for political necessity, and into an understanding of self-government, a good woman as a symbol of their greatness brought to the shadowy throne the powerful support of an overwhelming national sentiment. "The Queen, God bless her!" expressed the imperial pride of an Englishman as well as a personal sentiment. She stood for the Empire.

And in later life, when she had become grandmother to half the kings and queens in Europe, she came to have a strong direct political influence, too, in international affairs. The sovereigns of most European states were so bound to her by ties of blood or affection that her wise counsels for peace have been a strong restraint against rashness.

And her counsels were always for peace. Without intellectual brilliancy, she was a very strong character. Her personality was a positive one, one of the most positive of her time.

The Queen was born May 24, 1819; she succeeded to the throne on June 20, 1837; she was married to her cousin-german, Prince Albert, on February 10, 1840; the Prince of Wales (now King Edward VII.) was born November 9, 1841; the Prince Consort died December 14, 1861; the Queen's jubilee was celebrated in 1887, and her "diamond jubilee" in 1897; and she died at Osborne, Isle of Wight, January 22, 1901.

Her reign was the longest in English history. George III. reigned sixty years; Henry III., fifty-six years; Edward III., fifty years. The only reign of a European monarch in ancient or modern times that was longer than Victoria's was Louis XIV.'s of France, who nominally occupied the throne for seventy-two years. A review of her reign would be the history of England and in great measure the history of Europe since the fall of Napoleon. A mere chronology of important events would fill half a magazine. The oft-told stories of her life — those that are taken from memoirs that can be relied upon — reflect the character of the Queen and show some of the changes that have come in this long epoch better than a formal record of facts.

Stories of the Queen's Life

The institution of the Throne, which in 1837 had sunk so low in popular estimation that its very existence seemed threatened, now stands bulwarked in the enthusiastic affection of British subjects everywhere. Then Harriet Martineau could return from witnessing the splendid spectacle of the Queen's coronation to record her disapproval of a ceremonial of homage to one who was in reality only a figurehead. Since that time free institutions have been spreading steadily, yet no such protest was heard the other day when Edward VII. was proclaimed. It is the character of Victoria herself which has so cemented the loyalty of her people that the monarchy is stronger at the beginning of the twentieth century than it was sixty years ago.

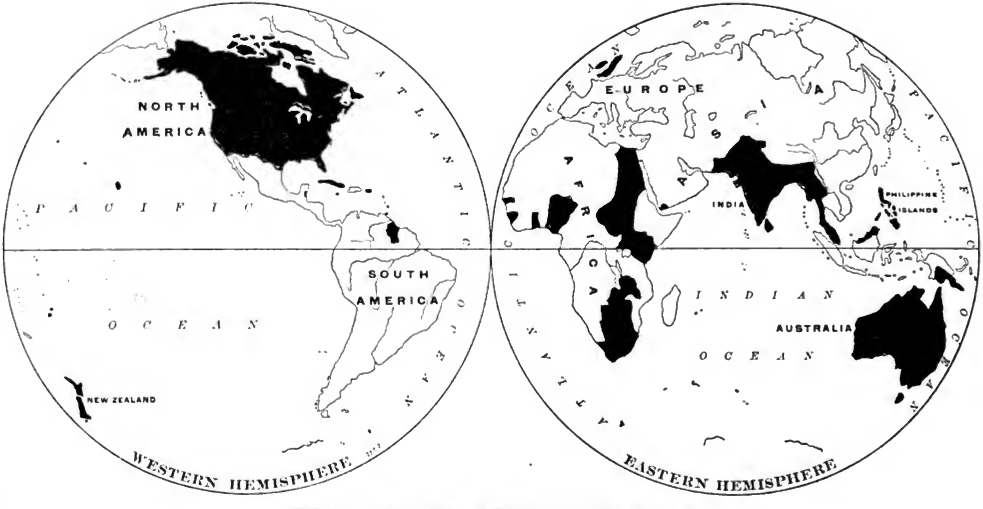
When she came to the throne, the House of Hanover was far from popular. Indeed, had the succession fallen to her uncle, the Duke of Cumberland, the next of kin after her, it was thought that nothing could have prevented a revolution. When she was married, in 1840, an awkward question of precedence came up, and one of her uncles applied to Wellington for advice. He was told that the best thing he could do would be to get out of England as fast as possible. "And take care you are not pelted on the way!"

Victoria's father died when she was only eight months old, and her mother, the Duchess of Kent, guarded her carefully from contact with the court. To British middle-class morality the conduct of the sons of George III. was distinctly unedifying.

William IV. resented the infrequency of the appearance at court of the heir to the throne, and when, on the occasion of his birthday, in 1836, Victoria and her mother attended a royal dinner at which more than a hundred guests were present, he took occasion, on the drinking of his health, to respond with a most ill-timed speech:—

"I trust in God that my life may be spared nine months longer [when Victoria would come of age]. I should then have the satisfaction of leaving the royal authority to the personal exercise of that young lady [Victoria] and not in the hands of a person now near me [the Duchess of Kent was sitting next the King], who is surrounded by evil admirers, and who is herself incompetent to act with propriety in the station in which she would be placed."

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"THE RACE THAT RULES ON EVERY CONTINENT BUT ONE."

The black portions of the map show the domains of English-speaking people.

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Of course a scene followed. "The Queen looked in deep distress, the Princess burst into tears, and the whole company were aghast. The Duchess of Kent said not a word." The excessive brutality of such a rebuke administered at such a time is indeed a sufficient comment on the man and king who made it.

The Queen was brought up very simply, and even severely. As a little girl she had no knowledge of the prospects which lay before her. Harriet Martineau says of her: —

"She kept early hours, and was active and scrupulously punctual — apologized for being half a minute late for an appointment when that extraordinary circumstance happened once in her life. She had her allowance of money from an early age; but nobody ever heard of her being in debt for an hour. When her childish fancy was taken with some article which she wished to buy for a present, she was sure to conclude that she must give it up, because she had not money enough till quarter-day to pay for it. And when it was put by for her, it was as early as seven in the morning of quarter-day that she came down on her donkey and secured her purchase."

Queen Victoria has not only always lived within her income, but she has given away liberally, and is supposed to have amassed a great fortune. The year of her accession she paid her father's debts, and the next her mother's. Her increasing family was cared for on the same allowance which was made to her when she came to the throne.

That she has not always succeeded in her efforts to implant the same principles in her descendants an anecdote regarding Prince Alexander of Battenberg will show. He was attending school in England, and, having spent all his pocket money, bethought him of writing his illustrious grandmother for more. The answer was a rebuke, admonishing him to keep within his limits and wait till his allowance came due. The little Prince's next letter was as follows: —

"My dear Grandmamma, — I am sure you will be glad to know that I need not trouble you for any money just now, for I sold your last letter to another boy here for thirty shillings."

When William IV. died there was the liveliest curiosity in official and court circles regarding the young girl who had been kept in such seclusion. "Not one of her acquaintance," says one of the Memoir writers, "none of the attendants at Kensington, not even the Duchess of Northumberland, her governess, have any idea what she is or what she promises to be."

A few hours after she was notified of her accession it was necessary for her to meet the Privy Council, hastily assembled for the purpose.

"Never was anything like the first impression she produced, or the chorus of praise and admiration which is raised about her manner and behavior. Her extreme youth and inexperience, and the ignorance of the world concerning her, naturally excited intense curiosity to see how she would act on this trying occasion, and there was a considerable attendance at the Palace, notwithstanding the short notice. When the Lords were assembled, the Lord President informed them of the King's death, and suggested that a few of them should repair to the presence of the Queen and inform her of the event, and that their Lordships were assembled in consequence. As soon as they had returned, the proclamation was read and the usual order passed, when the doors were thrown open and the Queen entered, accompanied by her two uncles, who advanced to meet her. She bowed to the Lords, took her seat, and then read her speech in a clear, distinct, and audible voice, and without any appearance of fear or embarrassment. The Privy Councillors were then sworn, the two royal Dukes first, by themselves; and as these two old men, her uncles, knelt before her, swearing allegiance and kissing her hand, I saw her blush up to the eyes, and this was the only sign of emotion which she evinced. She seemed rather bewildered at the multitude of men who were sworn, and who came one after another to kiss her hand, but she went through the whole ceremony with perfect calmness and self-possession, but at the same time with a graceful modesty and propriety particularly interesting and ingratiating. When the business was done, she retired as she had entered."

It is curious that the King, Edward VII., in his speech to the Privy Council has used the same word which sixty-four years ago in his mother's drew the criticism of Brougham. "*A*melioration," said he to Peel, who stood near him, "that is not English; you might perhaps say *me*lioration, but improvement is the proper word." "Oh," said Peel, "I see no harm in the word, it is generally used." "You object to the sentiment, I to the grammar."

The Duke of Wellington said of this first appearance of the Queen that "if she had

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been his own daughter he could not have desired to see her perform her part better."

Victoria, however, was not all the proper and submissive little state-machine which might be imagined. "With all her prudence and discretion," says Greville, "she has great animal spirits, and enters into the magnificent novelties of her position with the zest and curiosity of a child." That stanch upholder of the royal prerogative, the Duke of Wellington, had an early opportunity to support the authority of his young sovereign. The Queen was to go in state to St. James's Palace to be proclaimed, and wished to have with her only her mother and one of her ladies. The Master of the Horse claimed the right to ride in the coach. Wellington was appealed to to decide the point. His verdict was sufficiently emphatic. "The Queen can make you go inside the coach or outside the coach, or run behind like a damned tinker's dog."

In December of 1838 Greville spent two days at Windsor Castle, and on the whole found himself bored.

"The Court is certainly not gay, but it is, perhaps, impossible that any Court should be gay where there is no social equality. The Queen is natural, good-humored, and cheerful, but still she is Queen, and by her must the social habits and the tone of conversation be regulated, and for this she is too young and inexperienced. She sits at a large round table, her guests around it and Melbourne always in a chair beside her, where two mortal hours are consumed in such conversation as can be found."

This, however, is only in the evening. "The life which the Queen leads is this: she gets up soon after eight o'clock, breakfasts in her own room, and is employed the whole morning in transacting business; she reads all the despatches, and has every matter of interest and importance in every department laid before her. At eleven or twelve Melbourne comes to her and stays an hour, more or less. At two she rides with a large suite; Melbourne always rides on her left hand, and the equerry in waiting generally on her right; she rides for two hours, the greater part of the time at a full gallop; after riding she amuses herself for the rest of the afternoon with music and singing, playing, romping with children, if there are any in the Castle (and she is so fond of them that she generally contrives to have some there), or in any other way she fancies."

The dinner hour is about eight. "When the guests are all assembled the Queen comes in, preceded by the gentlemen of her household, and followed by the Duchess of Kent [her mother] and all her ladies; she speaks to each lady, bows to the men, and goes immediately to the dining-room. She generally takes the arm of the man of highest rank, but on this occasion she went with Mr. Stephenson, the American Minister. Melbourne invariably sits on her left, no matter who may be there; she remains at table the usual time, but does not suffer the men to sit long after her. Coffee is served to them in the adjoining room, and then they go into the drawing-room, where she goes round and says a few words to each, of the most trivial nature, all, however, very civil and cordial in manner and expression. When this little ceremony is over, the Duchess of Kent's whist table is arranged, and then the round table is marshalled, Melbourne invariably sitting on the left hand of the Queen and remaining there without moving till the evening is at an end. With him she passes (if not in *tête-à-tête* yet in intimate communication) more hours than any two people, in any relation of life, perhaps, ever do pass together besides. He is at her side for at least six hours every day. His manner to her is perfect, always respectful, and never presuming upon the extraordinary distinction he enjoys; hers to him is simple and natural. Interesting as his position is, and flattered, gratified, and touched as he must be by the confiding devotion with which she places herself in his hands, it is still marvellous that he should be able to overcome the force of habit so completely as to endure the life he leads. Month after month he remains at the Castle, submitting to this daily routine; of all men he appeared to be the last to be broken in to the trammels of a Court, and never was such a revolution seen in anybody's occupation and habits. Instead of sprawling in all the attitudes of luxurious ease, he is always sitting bolt upright; his free and easy language interlarded with 'damns' is carefully guarded, and he has exchanged the good talk of Holland House for the trivial, labored, and wearisome inanities of the royal circle."

The government of her household and court was something she never had to learn; she assumed it, guided by her fine instinct and native tact. The government of her country was something she had to learn more slowly. Her first and perhaps her best-beloved tutor was Lord Melbourne, and for a time the Tory leaders feared, not without apparent reason, that they would never be able to gain the confidence of a Queen upon whose affections the Whig leaders gained so complete a hold. Nor were the Tory

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THE LATE QUEEN AND KING EDWARD VII.

At the time of the Diamond Jubilee (1897).

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THE PRINCESS VICTORIA AT EIGHT YEARS.

statesmen endowed with the kind of gifts likely to establish them in her good graces. "I have no small talk," said the Duke of Wellington, "and Peel has no manners. At first Peel kept away as much as possible. When he did approach her, an observer noted that he 'couldn't help putting himself into his accustomed attitude of a dancing-master giving a lesson.' She would like him better if he kept his legs still."

It is, however, the strongest evidence of the Queen's good sense, political and practical, that though compelled again and again to summon a Prime Minister whom she had previously disliked and distrusted, she never permitted this feeling to affect their subsequent relations. Against Gladstone, it is true, she is said always to have had one cause of complaint. "He speaks to me as if I was a public meeting!"

In the matter of her marriage the Queen is said to have shown her independence even of the paternal and deeply trusted Lord Melbourne. Prince Albert was visiting his royal cousin, and after a time the Premier thought it his duty to inform her that, without presuming to question her regarding her intentions, if she had any, "it was necessary that her Ministers should be apprised of them." She replied that she had nothing to tell him. A fortnight afterwards she informed him that the whole thing was settled.

A little later it became necessary for the



VICTORIA'S FIRST COUNCIL.

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THE YOUNG QUEEN VICTORIA (1840).

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Queen to make her declaration to the Privy Council concerning her marriage. Some one asked her if it was not a nervous thing to do.

"Yes, but I did a much more nervous thing a little while ago."

"What was that?"

"I proposed to Prince Albert."

Before her marriage the Queen pressed Melbourne for an Act of Parliament making Prince Albert King Consort.

"At last," said the old Minister, "I thought it my duty to be very plain with her. I said, 'For God's sake, let's hear no more of it, madam; for if you once get the English people into the way of making kings, you will get them into the way of unmaking them."



VICTORIA AT EIGHTEEN YEARS.

To the Prince Consort no less than to Victoria was due the firm insistence on the principle that the royal household must be made up of both men and women of irreproachable reputation. The imposition of this new test of fitness was not always well received. Lord Melbourne once broke out, "This damned morality will ruin everything!" One nobleman, offered the Vice Chamberlainship, said, "Thank God, my character is too bad."

The Accession of King Edward

The Queen died January 22, at 6.30 in the evening — died painlessly as the result of old age and of no specific disease. On the next day, the Prince of Wales took the oath of accession and made a brief address, in the course of which he said: —

"In undertaking the heavy load which now devolves upon me, I am fully determined to be a constitutional sovereign in the strictest sense of the word, and so long as there is breath in my body, to work for the good and amelioration of my people.

"I have resolved to be known by the name of Edward, which has been borne by six of my ancestors.

"In doing so I do not undervalue the name of Albert, which I inherit from my ever-to-be-lamented great and wise father, who by universal consent is, I think, deservedly known by the name of Albert the Good, and I desire that his name should stand alone.

"In conclusion, I trust to Parliament and the nation to support me in the arduous duties which now devolve upon me by inheritance, and to which I am determined to devote my whole strength during the remainder of my life."

The next day he was proclaimed King with the quaint and traditional mediæval ceremonies.

The English were greatly pleased by the German Emperor's visit to the Queen as soon as the news of her serious condition reached him. He left the festivities of his own court, where a great celebration was in progress.

The Queen's funeral was held on February 2, with military honors, as she requested; and there was the most brilliant naval pageant ever seen, all nations doing honor to her.

King Edward VII. by his bearing and by his declarations has created a distinctly favorable impression both in England and abroad.

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From a painting by Sir Edwin Landseer.

THE YOUNG QUEEN VICTORIA HUNTING.

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THE MARRIAGE OF VICTORIA WITH "ALBERT THE GOOD."

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"ENGLAND'S HOPE."
A youthful portrait of King Edward.

How the Queen averted War with us

The number of times that the Queen may have prevented war may never be known. But she did a service to the United States that will always be held in affectionate remembrance.

When Captain Wilkes of the United States navy in 1861 by force took the Confederate agents, Messrs. Mason and Slidell, from the English merchant-ship *Trent*, he of course clearly went beyond international rights. It was an act of violence done by the United States navy to a ship flying the British flag.

Lord Palmerston was Prime Minister, and he was not a man of conciliatory manners. The note framed by the British Government to be sent to the United States Government would have been sure to provoke war. There was very strong feeling in the United States against the



From a painting by Sir Edwin Landseer.

THE QUEEN AT OSBORNE.
She is in mourning for the Prince Consort.

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CORONATION ROOM, WESTMINSTER ABBEY.

ruling class in England because of its sympathy with the Confederacy. The temper of those dominant in both countries was easily excitable. It was a crisis. War was almost to be expected — by many almost hoped for. It was a dangerous time for a jingo Ministry to send curt despatches.



THE CORONATION CHAIR, WESTMINSTER,
Worn by centuries of king and queen making.

Yet if we had then had war with England, what dire consequences would have followed cannot be guessed.

Lord Palmerston's despatch to our government was sent to the Queen. The Prince Consort was ill, — was, in fact, on his deathbed. But a memorandum from the Queen, in the Prince's handwriting, was returned to Lord Palmerston, containing proposed changes in the despatch which made it very much more conciliatory. It gave our government an opportunity to settle the matter satisfactorily.

There is no doubt that this modification of Lord Palmerston's note saved us from a war and enabled us to preserve the Union, without foreign complications.

The fact that the new monarch is a king at first gives a sort of shock. To the good and venerable Queen the English-speaking world had become accustomed, but a king seems an anachronism — at least as Americans think of England.

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SIR ALFRED MILNER (South Africa).



LORD CURZON (India).



EARL OF HOPETOUN (Australia).



LORD MINTO (Canada).

THE GOVERNORS OF THE ENGLISH COLONIES.

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By courtesy of R. H. Russell.

THE WELL-KNOWN NICHOLSON PORTRAIT OF THE QUEEN.

But in spite of the vast political changes in English life brought by the reform bills and by civil service reform, English society is yet thoroughly aristocratic — aristocratic to a degree that Americans can hardly comprehend. In their social structure the two countries are yet as far apart as the two poles. Startling an anachronism as a king seems to us, the satisfaction with which he has been received gives promise of an easy adjustment by his subjects to the new conditions.

As Prince of Wales he was at times a sore trial to the mass of nonconformist Englishmen; but as the first gentleman of the kingdom and as a master of ceremonial life, he has always been an attractive figure. His lifelong devotion to the Queen, too, has drawn to him something of the esteem in which she was held. The enormous silent power in international politics that she wielded so well, he can hardly hope to have; but the sincerity of his purpose, his long experience in the ceremonial side of royal life, and his mature years soften the transition and promise well.

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RELIGION BY HUMAN TOUCH

THE WORK OF A DOWN-TOWN CHURCH WHICH DID NOT MOVE UP-TOWN WITH ITS RICHER MEMBERS BECAUSE IT FOUND THE RIGHT MAN AS RECTOR, WHO THEREBY FOUND HIS CAREER—THE WORK OF ST. GEORGE'S IN NEW YORK UNDER DR. RAINSFORD

BY

JACOB A. RIIS

IN the corner of grim old Peter Stuyvesant's pear orchard, under the wall of St. George's crippled towers, I first met Tony. It is a good many years ago now, but it was the beginning of a companionship that has endured till this day, sometimes I dare hope to the betterment of us both. I can answer for my side of it. Tony had a lesson to teach, that I might pass it on in my turn. He was hard at it, spelling it out with fistfuls of mud on the stained glass windows of the church, could I only have made it out. I didn't then — not quite. But I picked up the letters: no home — worse, a slum tenement; no room for him in school; no place and no leave to play for the "cops" who filled the landscape whichever way he turned; no fun, no childhood, no one who cared one way or another — these were the alphabet of Tony's brief life-story.

Weeks after, when I found him chalking it on a Mulberry Street backfence in these words: "KEEB OF TE GRAS," I understood. The mud was no longer a riddle. The policeman, the landlord, the church were the trinity that stood to him for the order of society in which he had no place, a society of property, of sacred grass and window-panes and lamps which they were set to guard, stood between him and all that made life worth living. They had left him only the gutter, and he turned it to such use as had the disinherited of any day.

Only, as ever when the gutter is called in, Tony was wrong. He was spurning his best friend. Unknown to him, the old had passed away and the new come to take its place. A better day was breaking for that Eastside, of which he was the type; its light was shining even then through the windows of St. George's, with promise of long-forgotten brotherhood. If Tony in his gutter had not made it out, his defence was at least as good as ours. So there need be no back talk. Besides, he knows now.



TONY

St. George's, a few years before, had been on its last legs. In its day it had been a church of wealth and fashion. But fashion had taken the up-town route, and wealth went with it. A new population moved in with which it had nothing in common, not even language. St. Martin's would have been more to the purpose. They were Germans, hard-working, poor, not what you would call spiritual; could get along without saint of any kind, if need be, and did, for a while. Their children took to the mud. St. George's was for sale. There was a debt of $35,000

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on the church, and it went begging for a purchaser. It was in this emergency that the thought of the vestry turned to a young priest who had spoken once or twice from Dr. Tyng's old rostrum and sent little hot flashes of indignation down the backs of some of his hearers. Unconventional, erratic? "Better that," came the reply within the congregation that had dwindled to a handful, "than dry-rot and death. If Christianity means anything, St. George's has a mission among these teeming multitudes. Give us the man with a message." And the call went to Dr. W. S. Rainsford, then preaching in Toronto.

He came, after some parleying, to meet the vestry of St. George's face to face. The committee that received him was made up of some of the best-known men in the city, hard-headed men of business. But it was the preacher who made the conditions. Their offer to him was a brilliant one, but he brushed it aside.

"We will discuss that afterward," he said. "I want three things if I come to St. George's: you must make the church free, discharge all the committees except the vestry so as to leave me entirely free hands, and give me $10,000 a year for three years, to use in parish work as I see fit without asking anybody's consent."

They were rare conditions for a young preacher with a reputation yet to make to put to a church over head and ears in debt, but the men of business made out the quality of leadership behind them, and cried "done." So Dr. Rainsford came to New York.

He found fourteen families on the church roster. "In three weeks," he said to me in one of his rare reminiscent moods, with a grim little laugh, "I preached seven of them out." Then he was down to hard pan and was ready to begin building. Eighteen years have passed since he could say with the child in the song: "We are seven." I have the St. George's year-book for 1890 before me. The number of families reported therein as in care of the register is 1877. The interest upon the endowment fund that has taken the place of the church debt equals pretty nearly, according to my reckoning, the old burden. Sunday morning congregations in which the neighboring tenements are hopefully in evidence fill every seat that was vacant in the old days, taxing the capacity of the great building. The rector no longer toils alone. A staff of half a score clergymen and deaconesses labor with him early and late in his parish of tenements, while an army of more than four hundred volunteers from up-town and down-town attend diligently to the vast array of social, philanthropic, educational machinery that has wrought these changes. The church stands there yet with its broken towers. The foundation under them was weakened by a fire many years ago so that they had to be taken down at a cost of nearly $30,000. To put them back would take four times



ST GEORGE'S, STUYVESANT SQUARE, NEW YORK.
"The church stands there yet with its broken towers"

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THE REV. W. S. RAINSFORD

Rector of St. George's, New York.

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IN THE GYMNASIUM OF THE MEMORIAL HOUSE OF ST. GEORGE'S.



THE MEMORIAL HOUSE AND RECTORY OF ST. GEORGE'S.

that amount, and they were not put back. It came long ago to be understood in New York that St. George's would find all the money that was needed for flesh and blood, once the need was demonstrated, but not a cent for brick and mortar. So the twin towers stand as the wreckers left them. But behind them a sturdy spire of a younger day than theirs points heavenward. Its cross surmounts the Memorial Building, the busy parish workshop under whose roof churchmanship and citizenship are welded into the neighborly Christianity that alone has help for our democratic day. Perhaps there is a lesson in this, a lesson for Tony and the rest of us. I shall not say. I only know it is so.

With Dr. Rainsford at the helm St. George's made good her claim that the people will support a church that is theirs in fact; that free seats can be made to yield a greater revenue for church work than pew-rents, however opulent. It is, as it ought to be, largely a question of faith — in your fellow-man and in the merits of book-keeping. The Lord's business no more than man's affairs will

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prosper, if allowed to lie at loose ends. There is no business house down-town that is conducted for temporal gain with stricter attention to detail than is the saving of souls in Sixteenth Street. The budget of St. George's is scanned with as anxious solicitude as the balance sheet of any bank; its thousand weekly contributors are as rigidly accounted for on the office ledgers if their Sunday envelopes contain pennies as when they hold twenty-dollar bills; its parish work proceeds along lines sedulously planned, with the watchful care of an invading army prepared to deal with any emergency, and with results to invaders and invaded alike that have made service at St. George's a much coveted post-graduate course of ecclesiastical training. As an organization for religious work St. George's from a flat failure has become an unquestioned success of significance not only for the Eastside of New York. Indeed, it has been and is a liberal contributor to the whole country. On a recent Sunday morning committees from four churches in as many Western states met in its pews without prearrangement to return thanks for shepherds fitted at St. George's. But its great work, its real contribution to its day and to mankind, is not to be measured by ledger balances or church reports. That work must ever be its helping to usher in the new and better day, the bringing of men together in a real brotherhood on the basis of mutual understanding and esteem — its account in the final reckoning with Tony.

What I mean by that it would not be



LOOKING ACROSS STUYVESANT SQUARE TOWARD ST. GEORGE'S, NEW YORK.

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IN THE PRINTING OFFICE AT THE ST. GEORGE'S TRADE SCHOOL.

difficult for any one to understand who saw the mighty host of nearly fifteen hundred communicants thronging to St. George's altar-rail on last Easter morning. Mighty in numbers and mighty in promise, for the great mass were young working men and women from the tenements, the very class whose falling away from the church ecclesiastical pessimists are loudly bewailing. They are the strength of St. George's to-day; and shoulder to shoulder with them stand the men and the women whom I wrote "How the Other Half Lives" for. I meant that they should know; that those whose lines were laid in easier places should find out something about the hardships and the temp-



WHO "SHOULDERED THEIR RIFLES AND REPORTED FOR DUTY AT THE OUTBREAK OF THE SPANISH WAR."

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tations of their poorer brothers and sisters; that there should not forever be an *other* half. Go to St. George's on Sunday, and you will find the president of one of the greatest colleges in the land teaching a Bible class of workingmen to whom life's hard problems are very real and pressing, and he is a better college president for it, and they better men. In the ranks of the rector's co-workers you will see the most masterful financier of the day, who on week-days traffics in railroads as the man who drops his envelope in the contribution plate he passes trades mayhap in apples or potatoes; the president of the Citizens' Union, a philanthropist of the noblest aspirations, truly of the "oldest and best," and others like him distinguished for wealth, social position, and public spirit, a combination too rare yet among us for our comfort or even safety. Any night in the week go to the Parish House and find it teeming with a hundred healthy human activities from the cellar where the young lads learn the value of a steady hand and a sure eye, sighting along a rifle-barrel, to the quiet floor up at the top where the resident clergy meet inquirers into life's graver questions for exchange of ideas and advice, and everywhere you will find the children of ease and of plenty giving of their time and of the abundance of their lives freely to the children of toil and of poverty. In St. George's plan they mingle on equal terms. It is good for those who have little and better for those who have much. It is good for us all — for only so comes the true democracy unless we realize which, all the high aspirations of our race and of our faith, all our gropings after human freedom in any form, are lies and vanity.

This is not to say that Dr. Rainsford has brought us face to face with the millennium. The cry that goes up from St. George's is the world-old one for help to bring in the harvest that is whitening in the fields. "Year by year," says its rector, in his last summons to his people, "it seems to be growing harder in New York to get people of education and leisure systematically to carry on such work as I outline for Christ's church. And yet, if this unwillingness is not overcome, no branch of the Christian Church can possibly succeed. Money can never take the place of service." It is the call of a man who is fighting at close quarters. The perspective of eighteen years tells a different story. The cry of that day was not for helpers to bring in the sheaves, but to pay an overdue mortgage. There were no sheaves to bring in; none, that is, which the reapers identified as belonging to them.

A glance at the human beehive in the Parish House soon suggests the methods of these reapers. I shall tell no tales concerning the evolution of the rifle range in the cellar. There are people who object to rifles anywhere. The government found no cause of complaint when fifty odd stout lads from St. George's shouldered their rifles and reported for duty at the outbreak of the Spanish War. They had learned there to shoot in defence of their country. There may be some who shake their heads doubtfully at the sight of St. George's Cadet Battalion marching with fife and drum to its Saturday night drills in the Sixty-ninth Regiment Armory. I am not of their number. Often enough have I known the choice to be, when it came to the tenement house boys, whose spokesman Tony tried to be according to his light, between a gun on the shoulder, a chance to fall into line as one of us, or stripes on the back in the jail that forever shut them out from their kind. Since boys will have guns, let them have real ones and grow to the stature of men in carrying them. No risk in it. St. George's boys grow into St. George's men, and when you say it, you have the aim and end of it all in a nutshell.

Years ago, after a visit to a church club gymnasium in that section of the city, where I saw two boys squaring accounts in a friendly bout with boxing-gloves, I said something in print about the gospel in the shape of a black eye, referring to the peace and good will that are engendered by such a programme; and the manager took me severely to task. There was no such a thing as a black eye in their club, he said. They were lucky. I saw no black eyes at St. George's; but I imagine there must have been some, and bruises of many kinds, for the Athletic Club in Dr. Rainsford's flock holds no less than three championships of America for wrestling, and the wheelmen in it take long trips out on Long Island in summer, which I know from experience to be productive of bruises. That

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is to say, unless they are considerably nimbler than I, but I guess they are. I have seen them perform feats on the parallel bars, jump to amazing heights, and square off and do a hundred things I never dreamed of when I was at their age, either as boy or man. The gymnasium is mightily popular, and its equipment is kept up to the top notch with the same jealous care with which the club is guarded against the inroads of professionalism that will creep in to the routing of the manly muscular Christianity which is the purpose of it all. However, to that kind of an emergency, the rector, himself an amateur athlete of no mean caliber, is always equal.

It is a good thing that all the members of the Men's Club at St. George's are not athletes, for they number nearly seven hundred, which is rather more than seven times as many as the gymnasium could employ to advantage at any one time. I do not know of a club room in the city more cheery or attractive than theirs. Along with six athletic contests announced upon its bulletin board for the winter, including the competition for the rector's cup, I noticed three smokers, a Thanksgiving Day cross-country race, two billiard tournaments, as many lectures, three concerts and ladies' receptions, and chess and checker prize games besides — rather a comprehensive card, it will be seen. The "events" of St. George's Men's Club are popular always, and not least the evenings when they bid the King's Daughters and the Girls' Friendly be their guests, or are in turn received by them in the chapel for a dance. The key-note of St. George's is to get hold of the young and keep hold of them; and common sense long since showed that the way to do that was to let the young men and the young women come together as they will anyhow, and have the chance which the tenement denies them. The street is a poor place for it, the rector truly observes. The propositions which in the past have occasionally been laughed at as "Rainsford's heresies" were usually efforts to have this want understood and supplied, and to take from the saloon its prestige as the "poor man's club" by giving him a better for it. He is even now pleading for a "church parlor" for his young people; a place where they may meet and have music and such amusement as they crave. "Reasonable opportunities for social intercourse are an immense moral safeguard," he says, in support of his demand, and we all know that he is right.

These dances, by the way, are a whole index to the strides the neighborhood has taken since St. George's built one spire where there were two before. They were rather wearing in the beginning upon the clerical staff and their helpers from up-town. Cigarette ends and rough horseplay were apt to be somewhat conspicuously in evidence. To-day a ball at Sherry's can scarcely show better manners or more courtly behavior of the young men toward their partners. If there be any who, remembering Tony, think the efforts making for the rescue of the Eastside not worth while, that the morals do not go with the manners here, let him get himself invited to one of the St. George's dances, and, seeing what goes on there, let him recall that it was the young men and women of that Eastside whose demand for decency started the crusade against vice that is now filling the land with its hue and cry. Then let him doubt no longer. The Eastside is no more helpless than the Avenue, except when it is left in the lurch. In which case it may be for us that the outlook will prove hopeless in the end.

The women's end of it is represented by the King's Daughters, the Girls' Friendly, and the Sewing School of nearly five hundred members, which together carry on an unceasing propaganda in the tenements east of First Avenue. The Girls' Friendly alone conducts sewing classes, dressmaking classes, university extension talks, classes for physical improvement, embroidery and knitting schools, a millinery class that overhauls half the old hats of the parish and makes them presentable, cooking classes which tentatively feed first upon the product of their own industry and in due time bring to the furtherance of a sensible temperance programme more practical aid than all the sermons preached from the beginning to the end of time; singing classes, a reading room, a class for the training of clerks, and what not. Each class, circle, or centre groups itself about a volunteer leader who comes at night from the distant land of fashion and freedom from work, to teach and to learn from these friends, who

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meet her on even terms without trace of embarrassment or meddlesome curiosity, many a lesson of contentment and humility. And in the exchange the distance is lessened daily, the gap in our social structure is bridged by the human sympathy which alone has strength to carry us over safe.

I shall not attempt to follow into its details the parish machinery that reaches the lives of fully eight thousand persons who are most in need of such ministrations, with helpful sweetening touch. They range from the kindergarten for the little shavers, which is conducted under St. George's roof by the New York Kindergarten Association for the benefit of perplexed mothers no less than for the little ones themselves, to the Secret Society of the Golden G upstairs that caps the whole structure with the soaring ambition to be "somebody." There is a kitchen-garden where the girls are trained to be housekeepers, an employment office for those needing work, a summer cottage by the sea, which last year sheltered 512 women and children for a week, and 10,500 for a day at a time; a grocery store that sells at wholesale prices and gives supplies free to those who have no money; a relief department with medical aid and stores of clothing given to the church and mended and made over by poor women who thus learn a useful lesson while earning a day's wages; a circulating library of five thousand volumes, a dramatic society with endless resources of fun and enjoyment, and last but not least a trade-school, which alone of them all is crowded out and has to seek quarters in a tenement farther east in Sixteenth Street. I remember the origin of that school. It had its beginning in a kind of rebellion of a couple of young men against the will of the rector, who sought to set them to work in the Sunday School. No, they said, they would rather try a boys' club. The rector looked them over.

"Well," he said, "go over on the Eastside and find something there to do for the boys. Plenty of them there. When you have done it, come and tell me of it."

They went and started a club. The club led to talks about the marvels of mechanics. The talks had to be illustrated by visits to the gas works, the electric light works, the navy yard, the water-works, and newspaper offices. The two reported that the thing was under way, but yet in the air to a great extent. Then came an offer of money to run a training school, if a definite plan were adopted. To-day the school is there, and it has three times as many pupils as it can hold. They are taught carpentry, plumbing, printing, drawing, and manual training in three shifts, each two nights a week. And again the touch: the absent ones are looked up in their homes. The teacher finds out what life means to them, and understands some things that were beyond his grasp before. The school does not aim to make finished mechanics, but rather to give the boys a taste for it, to turn their minds to mechanical pursuits, and in this it has been successful.

In St. George's plan all these manifold activities are made to contribute to the church work through the Sunday School. That is the wicket gate through which those must come who would share in the life within. There are other gates that are held ajar, but only ajar. Non-church-members may join the men's club, but only upon declaring their willingness to go upon the parish register and pull with the rest. Into the trade school a boy may step without belonging to the Sunday School, but not without close scrutiny; nor is he likely to stay there long, unaffiliated. Through the Girls' Friendly any one may enter who is pure and good; no other question is asked. But even that is but a round-about way to the same goal. The young married women's club absorbs the graduates of the Friendly, and the Sunday School their children in its turn. Once a week the entire Parish House, chapel, club-rooms, and all, is turned into a huge seminary for the study of Bible lessons. It is a significant peculiarity of this school that just about half of its students, that is to say more than eleven hundred, are over fourteen years old. It means that the plan has succeeded, that the Church not only makes growth, but keeps it, that the fight for Tony is won and the gutter beaten. So the patient plodders of St. George's may calmly face the days of perplexity and trouble that are coming. Their parish is moving from them once more. The poor are going after the rich. In their place is coming a new and unknown people of hostile antecedents, Italians and Jews.

"We labor and strive," said the rector to

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me with a touch of unwonted sadness in his voice, "only to find our people going from us when we have helped them to where they can no longer abide the tenement. It is like forever making bricks without straw."

They need have no fear who are keeping a grip on the boy, on Tony: he is himself the to-morrow. It matters less with what tongue he speaks, or is spoken to, than that he is spoken to at all. He is yours for the asking, if you will but ask. Were it not so, our immigration problem would be a problem indeed, not to be endured. And Tony is the really important member of the family. The rest will follow where he goes.

I have said enough to show the way all this is tending, which to me means the mission of Christianity in the world. If it has not that; if it is not here to make men better, to make them brothers; if it lack the power to do it, — it were better that every lofty church spire in the land be laid low as were those of St. George's of old, until the lesson be learned. But it has been learned. Even those who cannot see beyond the ecclesiastical machine they are tending, know it, and because of it, we can forgive them if they but tend it faithfully. A word about the man who took Tony under the arms. Dr. Rainsford is big of stature, as of heart and mind. He stands considerably above six feet in his stockings. He loves a joke, and used to tell with keen relish of the procession of ragamuffins he found trailing him on First Avenue when he first came here, chanting to an accompaniment of tin pans and improvised cymbals: "Won't he be a comfort to his mother when he grows up." Those were the days when the doctor's athletic training came in handy at times. He had started a mission school in the back rooms of a saloon on Avenue A and at one of the first sessions found a big ruffian in possession greatly to the discomfort of the teacher. Told to go out, the fellow informed Dr. Rainsford with an oath that he would see him further first. The doctor talked peaceably enough to the blackguard, hoping to avoid a disturbance, but when he swore at him again, gave him his own medicine in a blow that felled him like an ox. The fellow arose, dazed and groping, to find the doctor standing over him, ready to have it out.

"Have you got enough?" he asked. The man cried quits and went his way. The Sunday School session proceeded.

A week later there was another fight. The rector started in to clear the room, persuasion having failed, and found the burly ruffian of the previous encounter at his elbow.

"I thought I was in for it," he said, telling of it, "and that they had come to clean me out. I made sure my back was free and turned upon them. Imagine my surprise, when I saw my customer of the week before grab the other by the neck and rush him to the door.

"'Here,' he said, firing him out, 'the rector and I can clean out this saloon!' That was the last fight we had."

Dr. Rainsford is an Irishman born. His family belongs in Dublin. As a very young man he came to Canada with a party of emigrants, and having seen them settled, started across the States from St. Paul to "the coast" on horseback, a hazardous trip on which his small party was more than once in peril of annihilation from roving Indians. The passion for hunting, which made him run this risk, has not deserted him at the age of fifty, but the work of St. George's parish leaves him but little time to indulge in it these times. Still, once in a while he slips away to the Rocky Mountains with his boys, for a holiday. His study in the rectory, in fact, every room in it, bears testimony to his skill with the rifle. Heads of elk, grizzly, and mountain sheep adorn walls and shelves. The doctor thinks out his sermons under a battery of guns, any one of which has a story to tell of hardships joyfully borne, of danger and triumph. And he remembers them well. Perhaps they help the sermon go straight to the mark.

They have sometimes done so in a way to make a lot of people wince. There are some who have maintained in the past, that the doctor was not shooting at the right mark at all. His broad churchmanship, which recks little of forms unless like barrels, for what they contain, has offended some, the radicalism of his Irish blood others. Dr. Rainsford is a stanch advocate of the cause of labor. Labor men do not always agree with him, but they hear him gladly, respectfully, even lovingly, for they know his heart. His brethren

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in the cloth may sometimes feel nervous in his presence. They cannot guess where he is going to strike next and make the dust fly; but his great work no one questions. Those who are disposed to question his orthodoxy have had their breath taken away more than once when St. George's stalwart rector has invaded their cherished realm of theology, as in his famous series of Lenten sermons on the Bible a while ago, and shown them that in real loving loyalty to the truths of our Christian faith, he has no superior in a New York pulpit. His creed he summed up to me recently in a talk we had about St. George's and its problems: —

"It is the new commandment. Whatever light may be coming to us in the future, whatever it may have in store, that is the message for to-day, that we learn to love one another."

And in it discordant voices are silenced. It is the sum of all.

Going by St. George's the other morning, the invitation that is all too rare yet on church doors in New York: "Come in, rest and pray" beckoned me, and I went in. Two worshippers were there before me, both women. In the twilight of the lofty building I saw them dimly in their pews. One was old, worn with toil and care; but the deep lines in her seamed face were lines of peace. The other was a young girl, in rich clothing, come in on her way out shopping. The pocketbook in her gloved hand told that plainly enough. Silently the two knelt with bowed heads. From without came the roar of the great city as a distant confused murmur. A little sparrow twittered in one of the windows upon which Tony had vented his spite. To the day of strife and of hate had succeeded the day of peace, of good will. The old and the new, the yesterday and the to-day, had met in mutual understanding as neighbor with neighbor. And it was well.

"WAKE UP, ENGLAND!"

THE CRY OF ALL CLASSES IN THE KINGDOM AT THE GAINS OF AMERICAN AND GERMAN TRADE — HOW THE LABOR UNIONS CAME TO HINDER BRITISH COMMERCE — AN INTERESTING CHAPTER IN INDUSTRIAL HISTORY

BY

CHALMERS ROBERTS

A TRAVELLER arriving in England at this time is constantly struck with one sentence staring at him from billboards, from headlines as glaring as conservative journalism allows, and even from the more serious reviews and magazines. Everywhere the same exhortation, the almost plaintive cry, "Wake up, England!" This is the battle call of a great army composed of all classes of society bent upon restraining the steady and indubitable relative decline in British export trade, and even in the trade of those branches of home consumption subject to foreign competition. It has taken the governing mind almost ten years to awake to the situation. If the mind of the laboring man proves as sluggish as the mind of the social strata above him, little hope remains for the retention of his country's industrial supremacy.

The London *Times* led off a few months ago with a strong series of articles by an anonymous but exceedingly well-informed writer who took a very serious view of the practice of restricting production among British engineers. The *Daily Mail* followed with a series of articles from the pen of perhaps the best trade authority in the land, Mr. Theo. Fielden, editor of *Fielden's Magazine*, to whose writings, both in his magazine and in the press, I am much indebted for information given here.

The *Daily Telegraph*, the great organ of middle-class England, recently said, in one of a series of editorials: —

"Upon our side it is certain that British manufacturers must be more willing to imitate the methods of their rivals if they cannot outstrip them in original invention. Clients at home will have to

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simplify their specifications if English enterprise is to have any chance at its best of competing with the colossal output of standard makes in the United States. . . . Above all, the obstructive rules of trade unions and the reluctance of the trade-union worker to assist in speeding up the work must be swept away. Nations have always developed their highest strength in overcoming their most dangerous difficulties, and we shall find in the very severity of the struggle stimulating compensations of which we little dream."

The *Spectator*, too, in fact the whole British press, has fallen to discussing the subject.

To one well acquainted with the slow working of public thought in England there have been many amusing incidents connected with this trade contest. The case of Sir Howard Vincent, M.P., is a shining one. It is now some years since the marvellous penetration of German manufactures, not only into the markets which Great Britain claimed as hers by right of prior occupation, but into the tight little isle itself, came to be generally noticed. As perhaps the earliest inspiration of his public career, Sir Howard in a speech at Westminster told his parliamentary colleagues that this Teutonic triumph was due to the ape-like imitativeness of the Germans and the cheapness of their inferior imitations; that if Englishmen had to choose knowingly between the home and the foreign made article there would be no further question of German competition; that he proposed as a remedy a law requiring all foreign manufactures to be so stamped in plain lettering. Parliament agreed readily to the proposition. Hence it happened that one fine morning John Bull discovered staring at him from every corner of his home, his shop, his office, the significant legend: "Made in Germany." The result was an overwhelming revelation of the inroads that the foreign manufacturer had made. It was probably because it proved so painful that the law was finally repealed, but the lesson it taught sank deep and is remembered bitterly. There was at the time some satisfaction in the knowledge that the things "made in Germany" were for the most part small articles for daily use, and that England still led in things that mattered. Here came further revelations. In hurrying the railway up the Nile after the capture of Omdurman, where speed was imperative, the British Government gave the chief bridge contract (over the Atbara River) to the Penroyd Iron Works near Philadelphia, over the heads of several home competitors. Oh, the clamor and outcry which arose from the English press at the time! Americans in England at the time will never forget it. There was much talk of national shame, and ashes were plentifully sprinkled on the public head. Yet the American firm agreed to construct the bridge within seven weeks, whereas the British contractors required seven months.

Even this was not the end of sorrow. A few years more saw American-built locomotives hauling trains on the Midland and the Great Northern railroads, the first American locomotives used in England since the forties. Further still the conquerors come, bringing coals to Newcastle indeed. Both the United States and Germany have long since passed Great Britain in the iron and steel industries.

In 1891 the output of steel from the United States was in advance of the British output by five million tons, and Germany came second, still a million tons in advance of the old-time leader. Even into their proud shipyards Americans come and undersell them in steel ship plates. Very lately thousands of tons have been sold to the Clyde shipbuilders for forward delivery.

Sir Howard Vincent has again amusingly come to the fore as the champion of British trade. He wrote a stinging public letter to Lord Claud Hamilton, Chairman of the Great Eastern Railway Company, upon the lack of patriotism shown by his company in placing large orders for steel rails and fish plates with the Carnegie Steel Company. Lord Claud's answer is instructive and significant. Once again Sir Howard has unintentionally opened English eyes. The answer probably discloses a typical instance of the unreadiness or inability of British manufacturers to meet requirements. The Great Eastern Railway Company has had during the past two years two contracts running for rails and chairs with one of the leading British steel companies. The final deliveries of the first contract were eleven months in arrears, of the second, up to the time of writing, not a single rail had been delivered. The most strenuous efforts had been put forth by the directors of the

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railroad company, but a deficiency of nine thousand tons is shown, with the natural consequences that very great delay and inconvenience have been caused in connection with the maintenance work of the line. To use Lord Claud's own words, the directors went "where we could rely upon good materials and prompt delivery and at a price below what we would have had to pay in England."

This incident brings the matter down to primary causes — in fact, the primary cause. This cannot be said to lie in the ignorance of British manufacturers, for in the iron and steel industries, those most seriously threatened, it may be admitted that the leading ironmasters of England have little to learn from the United States or elsewhere. The root of the evil lies in the British workman himself. Some ascribe it to his lack of ambition. Others say that he has no conscience with regard to his employer. And others go so far as to accuse the climate. It seems hard to blame him for what is probably only the outcome of his traditions and his surroundings. Individually he compares favorably with his fellows anywhere in the world. See how he prospers when he goes to America. Some of the best workers in American industries are British born. Yet the facts are, as all authorities agree, that while both in Germany and America the workmen show the keenest desire to do as much and as well as possible within a given time, the British laborer seems determined to do as little as possible in the shortest working day obtainable. This absence of honorable application is best made evident in these figures from an article signed "Metallurgist" in a recent number of the *Ironmonger*: —

"From a careful calculation, made after comparing notes with other observers, and taking the figures 1 to 1¼ as representing the capacity of the ordinary British workman, I consider the Swiss-German as fairly represented by 1¾ and the Yankee by 2¼."

It is chiefly to arouse this sleeping giant that the present campaign of "Wake up, England!" is waged. Yet of course many other causes are suggested for the decline. And much unsatisfactory consolation is offered on what is said to be the remaining superiority of British productions over their more successful rivals. But for an outsider it is rather difficult to believe that if, for instance, the English-made locomotive so long outlasts the American, English railroads would continue to invest in the "machine-made" article from afar with the more slowly constructed "hand-made" engine at their very doors. In the discussions, one reads a great deal about the advantages that the Germans have in their superior technical education, of the impossibility of competing with the natural resources of America, of the standardization of American products which gives them a great time advantage over British manufactures — where each locomotive or each bridge must be built according to special stipulations, and wherefore a stock of bridges, waiting only to be put up, cannot be kept on hand. In addition to these reasons, are mentioned a general indisposition to adopt improved appliances and new tools, the failure to adopt the best commercial methods, and even the great battles of Cobden's day promise to be fought again over the cry for the protection of the home market to the British manufacturer against his foreign competitor. This will surely be one of the leading public issues in the United Kingdom within the next few years, although the writer, for one, believes that the result will not be a blind wall of protective tariff limited to Great Britain alone, but a general scheme for securing advantages to reciprocal trade between the mother country and her colonies.

After all these subjects are brushed aside, the controversialists come down to the leading issue and expend most of their ammunition on it. This is the restriction of output due to trade unions and the general lack of enthusiasm in his work which the British laborer himself displays. It is confessed even by those naturally friendly to the trade unions and with full admission of the many benefits that the working classes have received at their hands, that they are chiefly to blame for the retrogression of British industry. Their enormous power hangs, a sullen cloud, over the whole industrial world here, affecting men and masters alike. If you blame the master for his out-of-date factory and plant, he will answer to this effect: —

"Yes, I admit they are behind the times. But they earn, as they have earned for many years,

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a fine dividend on the money invested. You know all of this talk about the decline of our power in the trade of the world does not mean that we are idle. It is in getting our share of the great increase in international commerce that the figures tell against us. Every factory in England is as full of work and orders as it can be. Yet it is true, as you say, that we should increase our producing power. Why don't we? Well, frankly, I for one am afraid. My little fortune now is secure. Nothing can affect it. Suppose I upset the present satisfactory condition of things by investing my earnings in a much larger plant; for if I rebuild at all, it must be with all of my own and possibly borrowed capital. No sooner have I done so than the unions for some reason or another will call out the men on a strike, and strikes have been known to last here for years, to the ruin alike of the masters and men. No man who suffered through the great engineering strike of a few years ago can ever fail to include the possibility of its repetition in his calculation for the future."

The discussion brings out ample blame for the masters even if the burden of the charges seem heavier against the men. They are accused of a lack of a conciliatory attitude, of a determined reduction of pay where piecework has been adopted, in order to cut any ambitious workman back to his old wage, and to obtain a greater output at a less cost, and of engaging in such sharp local competitions with each other as to preclude the possibility of securing the perfect plants which combined industries in the United States enjoy.

Still, all these reasons sink into small significance when the trade union is fully brought forward. It is a wonderful story, that of the development of the Guild of the Middle Ages into the Trade Union of to-day, one much too long to tell here, but one which well repays research and reading. The bitter warfare waged by capitalists and the government against workmen, even during the early part of this century, will lead the sympathies of any unbiassed investigator to the side of the men. For years it was unlawful for a man to belong to any labor organization even of the most simple kind, and as late as 1830 men were sentenced to penal servitude and deportation on the slightest proof that they had lent any aid or taken any part in a movement to affect the wage they should receive or the time they should be employed. No one acquainted with the past can withhold his sympathy from the trade union movement, and he must have seen with satisfaction not only the frequent successes of the unions in obtaining a full share of the advantages of improved trade, but, even more decidedly, the position of comparative independence in which the individual unionist workingman is placed in dealing with his employer. Speaking broadly, the efforts of the unions for the improvement of the condition of labor in respect of remuneration, of sanitation, and of freedom from the risks of accident have been very largely beneficial, and have in the main been directed with as little unwisdom and unworthy motive as could be expected. And the reduction of the number of hours has increased the proportion of life available for family and social intercourse, for wholesome recreation, and even for intellectual improvement; and this is well worth some economic sacrifice.

All this having been said, quite a different view must be taken of the general direction given by many British trade unions to the attitude of their members, during the hours of labor. Sympathy will not remain with the unions if they persist in shirking their share of the common obligations of the whole commercial world. They have taken steps which are plainly the most shortsighted. Perhaps the chief of these has been a pernicious opposition not only to all labor-saving machinery, but to all saving of labor as well. The British artisan is restrained from doing his best because his trade union has set a limit on individual production. The temporary gain to the workingman, even if secured, is purchased at the cost of a danger of permanent and disastrous loss.

This condition of things is receiving the gravest attention from the best minds in the United Kingdom; for no witness of this arousing of British doggedness can doubt the result that it will bring. These men, who have set the seal of progress on all nations, will not lag behind, once they realize they are assailed. When they are fully awake to any danger, they meet it with the qualities that have conquered the world.

London, England, Feb. 1.

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THE PROGRESS OF HONESTY

HOW THE TRUTH PAYS IN BUSINESS AND FRANKNESS BRINGS DIRECT REWARD—GOOD MORALS BROUGHT BY PUBLICITY—THE CORPORATION AND HONESTY—THE ONE GREAT INTRENCHMENT OF DISHONESTY LEFT IS THE RICH MAN'S PART IN POLITICS

BY

HENRY GRAFTON CHAPMAN

AS a matter of fact, matters improve in a matter-of-fact way, not theatrically. New York City, for instance, is not governed perfectly, but Tammany Hall cannot, to-day, steal a dollar directly from the city. Politicians cannot buy a voter, and be sure that he will "stay bought," and that the proper vote will be delivered. Embezzlements by bank officers are rarer, and they cannot reach any great proportions, where the well-known checks that have been devised to prevent them are systematically applied, as they were not in the case of Alvord and the First National. Dishonest failures in business are fewer. Patent swindles are less common. No concern which, like the Merrit Investment Company, promises ten per cent a month can last long. Semi-fraudulent enterprises of all sorts, for obtaining money under pretences that are more or less false, are difficult to start, and hard to maintain. There is a distinct decline in the number of swindles and financial delusions. And even schemes started under the impulse of sincere but misguided enthusiasm, like the Cumberland Gap affair, will never again be as common as they have been in the past.

THE POWER OF PUBLICITY

Publicity and exposure are the great safeguards. One may deplore the impudence of the press in dragging scandals into view, but the modern newspaper must be taken with the defects of its good qualities. It drags everything into view. If in private concerns the newspapers are impudent, in frauds that concern the public they are vigilant. Exposure to daylight is the best disinfectant of all rottenness.

All along the line of commercial and political honesty there has been improvement. Less is wasted, less is stolen. Real reform is slowly and steadily at work.

How has the improvement taken place? What, as a matter of fact, have been the actions that have helped to better things? There has been no end of groping about in this matter. Much harm has been done with the best intentions; much good has come about, incidentally, or accidentally, as it were. If one can hit upon some notion as to the kind of actions that have turned out well, time can be saved by pushing these, and letting the rest go.

Let us jump *in medias res.*

In the days of Jay Gould men of high finance did business without rules of any description. Few of his disciples are left; they have been balked by an egotism wiser than theirs. There was a bad period among the retail merchants, a time when it was thought good business to deceive the public, till certain houses like that of Alexander T. Stewart, to take a well-known example, with this wiser egotism built up a great fortune by giving the public exactly what they said they would, and the best merchants have done the same ever since. Thirty years ago an advertisement was assumed to be a humbug. Advertising is now an honorable profession, and the men who are at the head of it receive large and well-earned salaries for telling the public (in so attractive a way that their advertisements are good reading) the exact truth about what their employers have to sell.

Journalism is not yet out of the wood. But newspapers, naturally, are not all at the same

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point. Some are floundering in the worst stage of unrestrained egotism, the stage where people stop at nothing which they think will pay, and hope the plan will work. But it is a plan that never has worked, for any length of time, and there is no reason to suppose it will work here. On the other hand, there are newspapers which have discovered the commercial value of facts, and the commercial value of telling the truth. The result is that our best American newspapers are the best in the world.

The question of fraud in business is more intricate. In a small, homogeneous people, all of whom have the same traditions, and who have reached, so to speak, the same point of ethics, conscience may be successfully appealed to. But in a country like ours, where men of widely different views meet on equal terms, conscience offers little or no security.

Assuming that there is an average standard of well-doing, there are many people who must be taught lessons. Foreigners, who try to succeed by thievish methods in business, and shysterish practices in law, which they seem to consider legitimate commercial warfare, are being taught a lesson. Ring and job politicians, who, for the most part, do not think their methods immoral, are gradually being taught a lesson.

ENGLISH AND AMERICAN HONESTY

It was some time before I could understand why Englishmen, when I asked them for a frank opinion, would tell me that American business methods were quite different from the English and much more immoral; while American merchants would say that Englishmen were willing to do abominable things, and were much less reliable than Americans. The fact is that each side comes into the market to do business on their own theories, and they sometimes fail to agree as to what is fair and what is not. Each seems to the other unreliable because they do not know what to expect. They do not like one another's mental atmosphere, and they upbraid one another when there is not really any exceptional immorality on either side.

There is no more moral obliquity over here than there is abroad. There are a great many actions for which Europeans have no name when they are committed by certain people, and the number of those people is large. The constitution of their society is, for the most part, such as to bring about the mediæval and thoroughly abominable result, that it is actually better that some evil doings should not be known, than that they should be made public. Appearances must be kept up. In this country there is no such thing as keeping up appearances, and if we have had a brilliant reputation for fraud, I believe it arises largely from the fact that we have every reason for exposing fraud and no reason at all for covering it up. We stigmatize fraud wherever we find it; moreover, we know it when we see it, and call it by its right name, and come down on it no matter who does it. I do not know how Europe finds out how bad we are unless it is because we tell them ourselves, and if, knowing how important appearances are to the very existence of European institutions, we are simple-minded enough to believe that Europeans are as honest as they say they are, the more fools we. Yet the point is not how bad we are at the moment, but what we are doing to make things better, and it seems to me that in this matter we have got on the right track. We have plenty of small tentative shams, but we have no one great authorized official sham to ease things off. We are really fighting out real things on rock-bottom fact. It is a long, hard process and it hurts, but every gain is a real gain.

There are not a few Americans who say that business morality in this country is low. But business cannot be done upon a basis of immorality and dishonesty. That involves a contradiction in terms. To do business you must have rules and those rules must be kept; but business may be done upon any understanding one chooses to adopt. When business is done on a purely egotistic basis, it becomes commercial war. This cannot be prevented. But in war men will enlarge the limits of deception. War measures, such as false sallies, misleading despatches intended to be captured by the enemy, diplomatic evasions, frank, false answers to impertinent questions, will be used and will be considered entirely proper. Commercial business has resolved itself, largely, into frank commercial warfare. The system

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works well. It pushes things ahead; it is recognized by every one, and nobody is ashamed of it. It cannot be intrinsically immoral, and it can look or seem immoral only to some one who does not understand it and is filled with a sentimental morality of a different kind.

I do not say that the system is by any means perfect as yet. Some men will do, in business, what corresponds to the poisoning of wells in war. The proper mean of conduct is still working itself out.

The tendency of business men is to protect themselves against fraud, rather than to leave the matter open, and hope that they will not be swindled. This is the safest and the cheapest method. It makes provision for the worst that may happen, and in most cases prevents it.

The country is full of ambitious men, who will not let small scruples stand in their way. Force is their instrument, and force is the only thing that has ever kept them in order. In the aristocracies from which we are descended the force was all on one side and the obedience all on the other. In our democracy the force is diffused. Each set of interests has a share of it, to keep the rest in order. Everybody is in business, and has sovereign interests of his own. Ambitious sovereigns, on any scale, may turn up at any moment, and we must be ready for them when they come. We give up trust in the consciences of other people as a protection.

CONSCIENCES AND CORPORATIONS

The individual conscience is unreliable. It has always been unreliable. Kings have always had a bad reputation in the matter of keeping promises, and we now have kings on every hand. Corporations have done much in the way of setting examples, and teaching principles, which individuals have been compelled to recognize and follow. At first these legal persons seemed inhuman. It was said they had no souls. A man could be flattered by promises of heaven, or frightened by threats of hell, but a corporation could neither go to heaven nor be damned. It was a thing altogether of this world, and had to take all its rewards and punishments here. It was almost as much of a monster as the modern trust, for it did its business among men on a purely selfish basis, looking out for its own interests first, and men even said that it had no soul. Yet the creatures prospered, and ended by driving individual competitors to adopt their methods and acknowledge them. Obviously there cannot be two ways of doing business successfully where corporations control the greater part of it.

Old English landlords might remit or enforce the payment of their rents as their vicars moved them, but now all large private concerns are run as if they were corporations, and the small men follow the examples of the large. They must do it, or perish, for they cannot afford to do otherwise.

When the old-time employer had satisfied his conscience with a few visits to sick employees, a few stray leniencies, and a Christmas turkey (if he was exceptionally generous), he felt that he had been good enough. He had been good enough to save his soul, but not to help his business. Corporations found that they could not be compelled to be charitable, and they discovered that it was profitable to be decent. For their own sakes they began to treat their employees as well as it is possible to treat them under our social system of free contract, and both they and their wage-earners have the benefit of the discovery.

On the other side, as between the corporation and the public, both have gained. It is recognized that old William H. Vanderbilt's "The public be damned," is good corporation ethics — when occasion requires it. This wipes out all resentment in case of real straits, and all sentimentality in case of imposition. We all know that a corporation cannot run at a loss, and do not expect that it shall. We know that the company may try to impose on us and we will not put up with it. In the first case the remedy is tolerance, in the second it is a prompt resort to force, which is the only proper remedy for all impositions.

Pure business interest and economy is at the bottom of all these betterments.

PRACTICAL TEMPERANCE REFORM

And what has turned out to be the beginning of the real temperance movement? Simply that no railroad, street-car, steamboat, or telegraph company, no manufacturing con-

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cern or printing-house will to-day, if they can help it, employ a man who is a regular drinker, to say nothing of the drunkard. Safety first forced this action on certain occupations and others have followed out of economy, and it will not be long before no concern will be able to afford to employ the man who drinks.

The same thing works in higher lines. Stockbrokers can no longer afford to be tipsy at eleven o'clock in the morning. They lose their clients. An old Wall Street man said to me the other day that the young men did not drink in the morning, as they used to. Transactions are made in the fraction of a second, and a man cannot afford to be drunk.

Among real estate men it used to be the custom to seal every lease with a drink. The fashion has gone out. It has been the practice among many kinds of commercial travellers to make sales over a bar. This is still done in Western towns, and to a certain extent in the cities; but the president of a large manufacturing concern told me that, within the month, he had instructed his salesmen to do no business in bar-rooms in any city.

These things, which are but examples that can be duplicated in any line of life, go to show that real improvement comes along the track of commercialism, rather than that of philanthropy.

Mr. Means, in his "Industrial Freedom," says that no amount of mechanical ingenuity in the construction of laws will avail in the absence of an increase of integrity and honesty among men. "Moreover," he says, "it is the very essence of ethics to substitute reason for authority, persuasion for force." Very good, but even Mr. Means seems to recognize that one must begin with force. By and by one may get to a point where reason and persuasion can be substituted for it. Ethical analyses are, in practice, academic and without power. The object of ethics is that no wrong should be done, and knowing that many people will do wrong if they can, we try to stop them in the best available way. The actual order of all ethical progress on the part of dangerous people has always been first, enforced good conduct, and next a dying out of the feelings that inspired the bad conduct when it was possible.

Physical violence and the abuse of bodily strength and brute courage were not abolished by persuasion, but by the united force of numbers of weaker individuals. The individual bully was not overcome by reasoning with him, but by making his strength of no use to him. So long as a quality either of body or mind is useful and successful, nothing will prevent some men from using it. Fraud is intellectual violence, and the cure for it is force. If the fraudulently inclined person is to be done away with, he must be treated as the bully was treated. His art must be made of no use to him. Then he will knock under and do what he can for himself with such of his remaining faculties as he is allowed to use. Furthermore, his fraudulent propensities will die out from disuse, and he and his kind will end by becoming as decently honest as the bully is decently peaceable.

It is a question of taming predatory natures. Civilization has tamed the human brute, who now behaves himself except when he is drunk. It has now undertaken to tame people of brutal intelligence, and creatures are tamed by impressing it upon them that resistance is useless. To reason with them, to persuade them, to trust their consciences, is the very thing that these creatures want you to do. So long as we use these methods they are safe.

Far be it from me to say that it is not a much more elevated and delightful thing to reason with a man and persuade him, than it is to use force upon him, and not only is it more elevated but it is cheaper. Everything is in favor of that method if it would only answer, but it does not answer.

FRAUD UNDER CONTROL

So we get together and devise a system, designed to do for fraud and cunning what an efficient police force has done for brute strength.

The time will never come when men will not have to trust one another in some way. It will always be possible for a man to commit one or two frauds, just as it is now possible for any man to go out with a revolver and kill one or two people whenever he chooses. Real improvement consists in getting fraud down to that basis. Here, for example, are some pioneer attempts in that direction. To begin with, we have the criminal code where

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the provision is made for dealing with such obvious conventional frauds as can be found out or proved by legal evidence. Next come laws providing for the investigation of the affairs of financial institutions and corporations; laws regulating the investment of trust funds, the examination and bonding of officials, the inspection of foods and other articles, and all such laws and ordinances as are based upon a recognition of the fact that there will always be, in every line, some men who will try to be dishonest. But these public laws do not furnish a complete defence, and every branch of activity tries to drop around it a torpedo netting of a finer mesh than is provided for their protection by the public law. Labor unions are a police against the possible oppression of employers. This is not the place to discuss those bodies. I merely point out their relation to combinations of very different kinds. Surety companies are a police combined with insurance against dishonest officials and irresponsible contractors. Fire insurance companies in refusing to take moral hazards act also as a police against arson, a crime which combines force with a fraud. Merchants have the best fraud police. They have their regular detective agencies, in their Duns and Bradstreets, they have their private detectives in the shape of their credit men. They also have credit guaranty companies — a modern invention. Their enemies are people who try to get the greatest amount of credit on the smallest possible foundation, and they thwart them down to a percentage which, barring accidents, they can now calculate in advance.

Quite lately the bankers and financial institutions have invented what they call an Audit Company, whose business it shall be to know the real value of corporate properties, and the character of new ventures. It will be a police against their enemies and the enemies of the investing public.

These devices are not laws, but they are mechanical contrivances under the law which forestall injury. They show that the attention of the business world, so far as fraud is concerned, is at this moment concentrated upon making it impossible for any one, no matter how dishonest he would like to be, to go into business and thrive on dishonesty, and every year it becomes harder for the bully of fraud and deception to impose upon his neighbors.

Naturally enough, the advance has been greatest where direct interests were affected, and when results could be clearly seen and felt. Where interests are only indirectly concerned, people are both blind and lazy, and matters are allowed to take their course.

COMMERCIALISM AND POLITICS

This is the case where business and politics overlap, and here the sword-point of fraud finds a weak spot in the defensive armor of the people, and wounds, in their vitals, our public institutions.

And the worst of it is, that the enemy, in this case, is not a habitual criminal, but the man who stands high in business affairs, the banker, the director of great corporations, who is supposed to embody the best morality of the day; who follows it, too (in other lines), and exacts it scrupulously from others.

More than one business man of high standing in finance has told me that he not only considered it perfectly proper to influence legislation by the use of money, but that he would consider himself to blame if, when occasion seemed to require it, he should hesitate to do so.

Their position, as one of them graphically put it to me, is this: "I am the trustee for the interests of my stockholders. When I see a lot of scamps plotting to put through a law that will cost my company a hundred thousand dollars, and know that five thousand will stave them off for a year, do you suppose I hesitate to pay it? I think no more of it than of throwing out a lap-robe to a pack of wolves."

That's the commercial ethics of politics in a nutshell.

Little or no machinery exists to-day for dealing with such people. At present no moral or religious influences have any effect on them, and cannot eradicate them. As well try to draw stumps with a corkscrew. They think what they do is right. They are accustomed to pay for what they want, and they pay here, because it is the cheapest way out of the present difficulty.

This state of affairs has a wider and deeper significance than appears on the surface. Men who work with money have always

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bribed poorer men, but their bribery has not always meant what it means here. For here it is more than a matter of private morality, more even than a public matter,— it involves a social question of the highest kind. It represents, in our democracy, the autocratic determination of those who can do it, to have things their own way in spite of current morality, in spite of established law, and in spite of the apparent will of the people.

It cannot be said that the instinct of the owners and handlers of capital to keep legislation on a money basis is, for their present purposes, unwise. For who can tell, in these times of populism, what an honest legislature may do? But a dishonest one does what it is paid to do.

As a matter of fact the legislation for which capitalists pay is on the whole good for our social scheme as it now runs. It is favorable to property, to business and vested interests of all kinds, and opposed to populistic experiments.

But vested interests always assume that things as they stand are right, and that they are fixed, and this the unprejudiced outsider on the one hand, and the people on the other, know to be false. Things must move on; experiments must be tried; the will of the people must be done.

Not all attacks on vested rights are honest, not all are wise; but some are honest, and some are wise, and the power of modifying vested rights, which have come to appear unjust, must be preserved. People have the right to insist that they shall be resisted only by arguments and by votes. If we can put our finger on any autocratic use of argumentative power we will have found the enemy of the popular will. In this country it is the bribing of legislatures, for this deliberate, consistent, regular, annual fraud, committed by men of the highest financial and social standing, is the democratic representative of that aristocratic imposition from which we escaped when we freed this country.

This use of arbitrary power will be stopped in the end if it takes a revolution to do it. Populistic demagogues make all sorts of mistakes, and mislead their adherents, and set back their own cause by complicating it with schemes that are as essentially dishonest as the methods they attack. But they make no mistake when they point to the purchase of law, and say that there is the citadel in which arbitrary power has taken refuge, and which must be captured before the next step in the development of justice can take place.

THE PRESENT PROBLEM

In the meantime the question is to discover right methods of dealing with the difficulties that are now troubling so many patriotic Americans. They see very serious social troubles ahead, and month by month we find them asking whether this country will be able to cope with them or will go to pieces under the strain. To them the outlook is black. Their own methods do not seem able to deal with the problems that must come up. The new arithmetic which founds morality in egotism seems to them the worst of all. They are mistaken. The hateful remedy will destroy the evil. What they suspect and repudiate can handle the things they fear. What is wanted is that the minority of power should not stand still to meet the advance of popular enlightenment, but should make an orderly retreat, and surrender, with as good a grace as may be, such strongholds of social institution and such vested rights as are found to stand in the way of a growing sense of justice. If they do this, and recognize that this is a battle in which the people will stop at nothing, then a measurement of strength may serve better than an actual trial of it; and the great social revolution that is ever going on, and which is at present directed against the arbitrary power of money, may continue to be bloodless.

We have a long national life before us. We have plenty of time in which to deal with this affair. We cannot expect money to withdraw, and leave property rights at the mercy of social experimentalists; but wisdom may dictate moderation, and conscience will here and there have a say. Here as everywhere arbitrary power is doomed in the end. This is a large and a rich country, but there is not in it property enough to repay the inhabitants for the existence, in any corner of it, of a source of arbitrary power. Such a source now exists, and the fight against it is on. The new century will witness the struggle.

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TELEPHONING 3000 MILES

THE SUCCESSFUL DEVICE OF DR. PUPIN, OF COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY, WHEREBY A CONVERSATION MAY BE HELD FROM NEW YORK TO LONDON, OR FROM NEW YORK TO SAN FRANCISCO — BOUGHT BY THE BELL TELEPHONE COMPANY

BY

WILLIAM ARNOLD ANTHONY

ALMOST important invention has been made by Dr. Michael I. Pupin, of Columbia University, New York, whereby the telephone, overland or submarine, may be used over a distance of three thousand miles. This is a revolutionary invention of prodigious importance, for it is commercially practicable. It has already been bought by the Bell Telephone Company — whether to develop or to suppress will be seen.

By applying the invention to a telephone line a man in New York may talk with a man in San Francisco; and, by applying it to a submarine cable, a conversation may be held between New York and London. If telephone service becomes cheap, as sometime it must, the possibilities of this extension of its usefulness are unlimited. The most imaginative mind can hardly foresee what new conveniences and pleasures may come of it.

Moreover, the telephonic transmission of sound over short distances or over reasonably long ones — say a few hundred miles — may be made much more distinct than they now are. A conversation between New York and Chicago may be as easily heard as a conversation between two parts of the same city.

And the invention is so simple that to persons who know little about electricity it seems incredible. The device consists of putting coils of wire at certain intervals about the wire which transmits the waves of sound. This device makes a difference in the vibrations and preserves them a greater distance.

The imperfections of electrical conductors have hitherto limited the distances over which telephonic conversation can be carried on. On long lines of wire the waves gradually decay and become too feeble to be reproduced by the receiving apparatus. It had been suggested that by introducing frequent induction coils into the circuit some improvement might be made, but the theory had never been worked out by a mathematical formula, and various attempts had failed for this reason.

Dr. Pupin began his experiments by observing the propagation of a wave along a cord. Suppose that a long cord be attached to some mechanism at the top of a high tower, and that we wish to transmit motion to this mechanism by vibrating the end of the cord at the bottom of the tower: everybody knows that if the lower end of the cord be rapidly shaken a wave will travel up it, and reaching the top will jerk the mechanism back and forth, and might thus produce the desired motion, in a properly designed machine. If the cord be a very light one, it will be necessary to swing it violently to and fro in order that the jerks at the top may be sufficient to cause any appreciable effect. If the space around the cord were filled with water instead of air, agitate the lower end as violently as we might, the waves would quickly die out, and none of the energy given to the cord would reach the top. Substitute a heavy cord for the light one. A comparatively small wave started in such a cord would affect the mechanism at the top. If we make the cord heavy enough, we may transmit the power to the top by so small a to-and-fro movement that even in water it would not be lost. But we need not use a continuously heavy cord. It will be sufficient to load it at intervals with leaden weights. Every electrician knows that an electric current in a conductor wound in a close coil has something of the properties of a heavy body. It is difficult to start a current in such a coil, just as it is difficult to start a heavy body into

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motion; but, once started, it is also difficult to stop it.

With the effect of the loaded cord in mind, Dr. Pupin concluded that if he loaded an electric current by making it flow through a conduction that is at intervals coiled into close coils, he would accomplish the same result with a far lesser current; and that far less energy would be frittered away in overcoming the resistance of the conductor, and that it might, therefore, produce its effects at a far greater distance. This, then, in a nutshell, is Dr. Pupin's invention. He greatly increases the self-induction of the line by inserting in it at intervals coils of wire.

But the mere conception of the method to be pursued is not all. Many questions as to sizes and proportions had to be solved. How large must be those coils of wire? How many turns? What size of wire? How frequently placed along the conductor? Will the advantages gained warrant the expense? To answer these questions required an intricate mathematical calculation. By such an analysis he determined what must be the character of his transmission line, and he proceeded to construct such a line in his laboratory, and to test its working.

The first line did not prove his theory, nor the second; but the third cable, 250 miles long, was successful. In this it was found that without the introduction of the coils only $\frac{1}{250000}$ part of the current reached the receiver, while with the coils brought into the circuit at proper distances a fortieth of the original current reached the receiving end.

On a land telephone line it is sufficient to insert these coils of wire about every two miles. They may be small, plain coils of wire, insulated and wound on a spool, without mechanism of any kind, placed on the tops of poles; and they will be inconspicuous.

On an ocean cable the coils must be put much nearer together than on a land line, but the mathematical theory tells how near — about one-eighth of a mile — and what must be their dimensions — about $2 \times 2 \times 3$ inches. They must be so constructed as to form part of the ocean cable and be included in its protecting sheath.

Dr. Pupin is still a young man, not yet forty-three, for he was born on the military frontier of Austria in 1858. He came to America at the age of sixteen. As he himself frankly states it: "I ran away from school, and came here to earn my way by working in the shops and elsewhere." But he worked into Columbia College and graduated there in 1883. He went to Cambridge University in England after his graduation and studied the higher mathematics. He was the first American student to receive the John Tyndal fellowship, upon which he went to Berlin and studied physics under Helmholtz, and took his degree of Ph.D. Up to this time he never had felt any particular interest in electricity. His studies in Berlin were directed especially to physical chemistry, which he hoped to make his life work.

He returned to the United States in 1889, but no professorships nor assistant's positions of physical chemistry opened to him, and with much regret he gave up that work to accept an instructorship in mathematical electricity which was offered to him at Columbia University, New York City. At the time of his appointment there was no electrical laboratory at the University. He went about it to create one, and often had to purchase at his own expense the apparatus needed for purposes of instruction as well as of research.

It was in 1894 that, in connection with his academic work, he read Lord Rayleigh's "Theory of Sound," and especially that part which relates to the vibration of cords. The subject interested him instantly. He extended the theory to the solution of a problem that had not before been solved, the behavior of a heavy cord loaded at intervals with heavy masses and vibrating in a resisting medium. Five years he worked for his final results. Of what practical use could the solution of such a problem ever be? — of what use to know the behavior of a vibrating loaded cord? Yet it was the solution of this problem that led Dr. Pupin to the construction of the loaded electrical conductor, which has brought him hundreds of thousands of dollars, and which will be of incalculable value in facilitating the world's work.

It is a long step toward talking round the world; for it may yet be possible for a man to hear his own voice, as an echo, a moment after he speaks, it having travelled round the globe in the journey from his lips to his ear.

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ARCADE DEPOT, CACTUS GARDEN, LOS ANGELES.

MAKING STATIONS ATTRACTIVE

THE IMPROVEMENTS IN ARCHITECTURE AND IN SURROUNDINGS THAT MAKE THEM ATTRACTIVE AND GIVE THE TOWNS DISTINCTION AND ADDED VALUE—THE PASSING OF THE "SHED," AND THE COMING OF THE LANDSCAPE ARCHITECT

BY

DAVID B. HOWLAND



RAILROADS are competing with each other in the erection of beautiful and comfortable stations and in trying to overcome as far as possible the ugliness and griminess which were so long characteristic of stations and railroad yards. The corporations which own the railroads have been slow in reaching these higher conceptions of the possibilities and necessities in station construction and ornamentation. The American railroad builder's first idea of a station was as a place necessary for the use of passengers (who did indeed pay a revenue to the road), but not in itself a dividend-paying part of the line. Mistaken economy, therefore, demanded that it be so built and conducted that it might be as small an item of expense as possible.

In some small towns there was often no shelter for the passengers at the station,



THE WORST STATION IN AMERICA—OLD BARN AT HALIFAX

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which was simply a platform from which one could reach the steps of the cars, a water tank for the locomotive, and a shed for the freight. And the surroundings were unattractive in the extreme.

In larger cities the stations, too many of which are still standing, were built like barns, or covered pens, in which were enclosures where poorly cooked food was offered for





HOW ONE CITY STATION WAS TRANSFORMED (TRINITY PLACE, BOSTON).

sale at exorbitant prices and where the passengers, condemned to wait for an hour or more between trains, stumbled over baggage-trucks and dodged insistent hackmen, to look out upon the stands of the fruit venders and the dirtiest of the city's saloons. Many a city has suffered from the first impression that its thousands of visitors have been allowed to gain from its railroad stations and their surroundings, which were often the least attractive things that could be found in the whole city.



A "FREAK" DECORATION — A FLORAL LOG CABIN. Ypsilanti, Mich.

The bringing of taste and beauty to the building and ornamentation of railroad stations is the latest stage in railroad development. The first notion about the beautifying of stations was that of the country station agent. He nearly always has leisure. If there was in him the slightest spark of artistic taste, he enjoyed the opportunity of improving the grounds. Many an amateur landscape gardener has been developed in this way, stimulated by the high ambition that he might receive a word of commendation from passengers or a letter from the superintendent, praising his zeal. Often the flower beds laid out by the agents were gaudy and not neat. Too frequently the walks were lined with sea-shells or whitewashed stones giving



ANOTHER "FREAK" — A FLORAL MONUMENT TO THE "MAINE." Ypsilanti, Mich., 1898.

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A BEAUTIFUL NEW ENGLAND STATION (DALTON, MASS.).

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AT SOUTH LANCASTER, MASS.
A flower bed which won first prize in the 1890 competition.

a garish look. But these voluntary efforts, crude as they were, were in the right direction. They caused the employees to see the value of neatness; soon the station which had graded walks and pretty flower beds was found to be free from scattered bits of paper; then the stove was blacked, the cinders were swept up, the announcement for the next excursion was tacked up straight, and was taken down when its usefulness was past.

It was discovered that when such improvements had come over the station, everybody was made more cheerful. People who had money to spend in cities and towns along the line, were people for whom neatness and comfort and beauty had an indirect or direct attraction. When a city greatly desires to honor a guest, it sometimes uses the ancient form of presenting him with the freedom of the city, symbolized by a golden key. The railroad station of these days is the city gate of old. The massive structure, the beautiful lines, and artistic sculptures of the outer gates — instead of these we are now beginning to have beautiful railway stations, massive, impressive, in good taste.

A writer in the *Overland Monthly*, twenty years ago, asked: "Shall we live to see anywhere between New York and San Francisco



A PRIZE-WINNING STATION GARDEN IN NEW ENGLAND.

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A STATION PARK IN WINTER (WOODLAND, MASS.).

a waiting room furnished throughout in crimson plush and black walnut, a whole conservatory of flowers blooming under the wide skylight, and marble statuary embowered in orange trees, the whole multiplied by mirrors that fill up huge panels in the walls? Florence has such a station now."

If that writer is living, and can visit the waiting room of the Grand Central station in New York to-day, or the new station of the same road at Albany he will be dazzled by the sight of rather more luxury than he dreamed of. Black walnut and plush there are not, fortunately, but marble, the mirrors, and the blooming and fragrant flowers are there also. More, he can enter a restaurant where an appetizing lunch is served, or he can turn to an information booth where he will be furnished with accurate and simple instructions for finding his way to any place in the city to which he wants to go, or (in New York) he can step into the cars of the elevated railroad, and go where he pleases without directions — all under the same roof.

The old Grand Central Station in New York when it was built was thought to be a structure that would stand sufficient for all that use and sentiment could demand of it for generations to come. In pride of creation Commodore Vanderbilt caused his name, writ in brass, to be placed high upon the walls. In less than a quarter of a century, though the building still has the capacity to handle the business of the three railroads for which it is the terminus, it has been altogether remodelled within and without to conform



STATION AT STOCKBRIDGE, MASS.

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A STAIRWAY IN THE GRAND CENTRAL STATION, NEW YORK CITY.

to the requirements of public taste, public convenience, and public comfort. A sum amounting to a large fraction of the first cost of the station was spent in making these changes.

Or let the writer in the *Overland Monthly* go to Boston, where into the South Terminal Station come four great lines which once entered the city at four different places, to the confusion of the traveller and the clogging of the streets. This station, only a few years old, is regarded as one of the most convenient in the United States. The bold granite corner, filled with offices, is not an unæsthetic entrance. In the building is almost everything that the traveller needs down to cradles in



MAIN WAITING ROOM, NEW UNION STATION, NASHVILLE, TENN.

which the baby may be soothed before the shopping tour. The building covers thirteen acres. Its waiting room holds two thousand people, and it is estimated that twenty-five thousand can be crowded into the whole building. In one way this station is like the stations of Europe; the waiting room is on one side, and is intended only for those who wait. Travellers who are not ahead of time pass to the trains and buy their tickets without squeezing through the crowd of waiting people in the "parlor." This is a reform that the *Railroad Gazette* has long and vigorously urged.



A HANDSOME STATION PORTAL.

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A STATION OF UNUSUAL DESIGN AT WELLESLEY HILLS, MASS.

Or by way of contrast to the wretched thing that passes for a station at the Baltimore and Ohio Terminal in Washington, let him survey the magnificent structure which the same railroad has just built at the Mount Royal station in Baltimore, not forty miles away.

The Washington station is built of brick. There is a small waiting room on the street level which is not large enough for the crowds that come to take the trains in busy seasons. There is another waiting room below, on the level of the tracks on which the trains stand; this room is hardly fit for a dog to sleep in, yet the telegraph office and the baggage counter both open into it. There are few stables in Washington which have a less pleasing exterior than this station. The whole is surmounted by a cupola for all the world like that of a New England barn, in which the initials of the name of the railroad are displayed. The railroad, however, is fully con-



PASADENA, CAL.



FORT SHERIDAN, ILLINOIS.

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scious of the faults of the station and plans have been prepared for a new one, with new approaches of the tracks, which shall make it possible for all the northeast side of the capital to become beautiful.

The Mount Royal station, which has just been completed, shows, by its wonderful contrast to the Washington station, how much the railroad builder's conception of a station has changed in thirty years. The trains come into it from the south out of a tunnel through which they are drawn by electric locomotives. The station itself is as cleanly kept as the lobby of one of New York's great hotels. There are elevators for the passengers between the street level and the track level, and the patron of the railroad who can find anything in the gray stone exterior or the polished woodwork of the interior to offend him, or who can put him-



THE NEW TERMINAL STATION, BOSTON.



NEW STATION BUILDING AT PROVIDENCE, R.I.

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self to any inconvenience in transacting any of the business of a traveller, must be a captious individual indeed.

These few examples indicate the work that has been going on all over the country and are cited only to show that the architects are beginning to gain on the utilitarian ideas of the pioneer railroad presidents, who used to say to them, "Anything that will keep the rain off will do." There is a constant effort of railroad officers to inform themselves so that they may keep abreast of every improvement that is made. Studious and jealous delegations are constantly visiting, for instance, the New York, New Haven, and Hartford station at Brockton, Mass., and the Cincinnati, Hamilton, and Dayton station at Dayton, O., or the Union station in Pueblo, Col., which are celebrated throughout the country. Railroad patrons, too, are convincing the directorates of their sincerity in demanding better stations by offering to share the expense of putting up the new buildings. The effect of the architecture of the World's Fair buildings was stimulating to those who had to do with the putting up of public buildings throughout the country. In the West, the advance has been helped by a stimulus, little, if at all, known on the Atlantic seaboard — the competition between towns. Neighboring cities that openly offer free building sites and a large cash bonus to attract industries from one another will not rest or let their railroad people rest, until



MOUNT ROYAL STATION, BALTIMORE.



SANTA FÉ GARDENS AND DEPOT AT SANTA ANA, CAL.

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RUXTON STATION, NEAR BALTIMORE.

their station is as fine as the station of the nearest city to them.

The Boston and Albany Railroad easily took the lead in beginning the external adornment of its stations. Its leadership was shown not only in the intelligence and quality of the work, but in the uniformity with which good results were produced. All its stations were improved. Adverse critics have maintained that these improvements have been due altogether to the effect of the state law which compels the payment to the state of all income over ten per cent on the capital. It has been charged that the income has been kept down to ten per cent by expenditures on improvements which other roads could not afford. But I believe that the real reason for the improvement has been the far-sighted interest of Professor C. S. Sargent of Harvard University and of other large stockholders.



ARCADE DEPOT PARK, LOS ANGELES.

Professor Sargent is at the head of the Arnold Arboretum, and of the highest authority on horticulture and arboriculture. He was one of the first to recognize the efforts of Mr. E. A. Richardson, the baggage master at Newtonville, who had done much to improve his station, with the coöperation of the townspeople, who had furnished him with the seeds. Mr. Richardson afterward took a course of training at the Arboretum, and for the last fifteen years he has had charge of the landscape gardening on the road under the direction of Professor Sargent. In the meantime Mr. Frederick

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Law Olmsted was engaged to plan out the surroundings of the stations which had been built at Auburndale and other towns by the great architect, Mr. H. H. Richardson. Mr. Olmsted's services were costly, and the administration of the road found that, with his work as examples, the former baggage man was also able to carry forward their plans as fast as was necessary. He now has fifty-five stations under his care. In visiting them it is to be observed that Professor Sargent did not believe in the set carpet-pattern style of the usual station flower bed, nor admire the whitewashed stones and sea-shells. He wanted to bring into prominence our native trees and shrubs, such as rock maple, elms, birches, hemlocks, and the flowering viburnums, spireas, dogwood, syringas, and wild roses. He accomplished the desired effect by massing these shrubs in plots of grass which were not large enough to be cheerless or unsightly in winter, or to require constant attention in summer. The shrubs were selected with a view to their beauty all the year round, so that oftentimes the effects of their arrangement are as pleasant in winter as they are in summer — the green of the hemlock and the red-twigged dogwood, the brilliant berries of the barberry, the green cornel and the golden osiers, varying with every fog, rain, snow, or ice storm.



SANTA FÉ GARDENS AND DEPOT AT RIVERSIDE, CAL.

Nor is this work altogether confined to the stations or their immediate surroundings, for the rough and unsightly ledges along the line have been covered with Japanese ivy or woodbine, and many of the car shops, tank houses, and bridge abutments are green with ivy. Where the tracks were depressed in Newton, for instance, to abolish the grade crossings, the rough, bare banks that were exposed in the digging were graded and covered with turf so that the slope back from the track is as smooth as a green velvet carpet, and near each bridge there are masses of flowering shrubs.

The expense of this work has not been burdensome to the road. In the winter only two people are carried on the payroll, charged to the expense of landscape gardening, and in summer the force at its largest is but twenty-five. The company maintainsa small nursery at Allston, buys practically no fertilizer, and does not appropriate over $50 a year for shrubs. It is the experience of the railroad that the improvement of the suburban stations brings a direct return by attracting profitable residents to the towns. The improvement of the surroundings of the stations, moreover, influences the community and encourages improvement societies.

The Boston and Albany Railroad, though a pioneer in the work, is by no means alone in its attempts to make the most of such artistic taste as its employees may possess. The Long Island Railroad, now a division of the Pennsylvania system, the Boston and Maine Railroad, the Michigan Central Railroad, and many others, offer prizes to the employee who makes the most of his opportunities to beautify the vicinity of the stations. If sometimes the result is an attempt to reproduce the battleship *Maine* in a floral design, we may at least praise the industry.

The great transcontinental lines have less reason for attempting the sort of improvement which is treated of here than any other roads. On the bleak northern trails, however, across the Rocky Mountains, the Northern Pacific has made its stations at Livingston and Bozeman the centres of the nearest approximation to parks that the towns possess; while in the south the Santa Fé gardens are the admiration of all beholders.

The late President H. T. Johnson of the Central Railroad of New Jersey was once ridiculed by his competitors for "sandpapering" his line and making it a "parlor road." Many of them have lived to find themselves going to greater lengths of the same sort than Mr. Johnson ever dreamed of.

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Photographed by Frances Benjamin Johnston.

THE WHITE HOUSE AND PRESIDENT'S PARK.

IMPROVING THE NATIONAL CAPITAL

A PLAN FOR A MEMORIAL ARCH—THE WAY FROM IT TO THE WASHINGTON MONUMENT TO CONTAIN MEMORIALS OF EVERY PERIOD IN OUR HISTORY

BY

FRANCIS E. LEUPP

THE paradise of equestrians in the flesh is probably Hyde Park in London. The paradise of equestrians in bronze is undoubtedly the city of Washington. Every American whose great deeds Congress and the country wish to commemorate by an effigy is perched astride of a steed unless all the proprieties forbid. Admirals Farragut and Dupont enjoy a professional exemption; Daniel Webster and President Garfield, being in forensic attitudes, are naturally on their feet rather than in stirrups; Hahnemann and Joseph Henry are both clad in robes which suggest the gig rather than the saddle; and General Rawlins is said to owe not only his diminutive proportions but his refreshing immunity from the horseflesh fad to the fact that the money appropriated would not pay for any more bronze. But the great majority of the sculptured heroes, from Nathanael Greene down to Winfield S. Hancock, are mounted on animals which stand, or walk, or pirouette on their hind legs, according to the fancy of the artist who had charge of the job.

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Public taste at the capital is changing for the better, and there is now a general demand for some form of memorial which shall not be a mere figure of a man, either on horseback or afoot. The Washington national monument took the shape of an obelisk, and is to-day the most successful specimen of commemorative art in the city, if not in all the United States. Hence has sprung up a hope that the National Reunion Monument Association, which is collecting funds for a memorial to the soldiers and sailors who fell in the Civil War, will take still another departure from the conventional practice and rear an arch of massive proportions. This is a form which now appears nowhere in Washington — a city especially well adapted to its use by the breadth of the highways and the length of the uninterrupted vistas. By unanimous consent of the architects and landscape engineers who have been consulted on the subject, the ideal site for an arch commemorative of the war between the states and the results which flowed from it, would be Meridian Hill — the opposite end of Sixteenth Street from the White House. The arch would thus stand at the northern extremity of the city; it would face the South, the scene of hostilities; while the meridian of Washington, which would pass



Photographed by Frances Benjamin Johnston.

THE LAFAYETTE STATUE.
The Blaine house on the right.



Photographed by Frances Benjamin Johnston.

JACKSON STATUE, LAFAYETTE SQUARE.

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Photographed by Frances Benjamin Johnston

LAFAYETTE PARK FROM THE STEPS OF THE EXECUTIVE MANSION.



Photographed by Frances Benjamin Johnston

LOOKING UP SIXTEENTH STREET PAST ST. JOHN'S CHURCH

through the very centre of it, is the line where the East and West unite.

But the symbolic fitness of this site does not end here. Chance has so arranged the order of monumental structures leading up to it, that the arch would put the finishing touch to a remarkable historic series. Reference to the chart will show that at the southern extremity stands the national monument to Washington, the commander-in-chief of the Colonial armies in the War of the Revolution, and the President who set the machinery of the embryo Republic in motion. Next we see the White House, home of all his successors in the Presidency, emblematic of the civil government which emerged from the smoke and flame and blood of the Revolution. A few hundred feet more to the north stands the bronze statue of Andrew Jackson, the hero *par excellence* of the War of 1812, the first fought by the United States as an independent nation. About a half-mile further on we reach the statue of Winfield Scott, the chief hero of the War with Mexico, the second great trial at arms in which the nation

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Photographed by Frances Benjamin Johnston

THE WASHINGTON MONUMENT.

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Photographed by Frances Benjamin Johnston.

THE WINFIELD SCOTT STATUE.





Photographed by Frances Benjamin Johnston.

DOWN SIXTEENTH STREET FROM THE SITE OF THE PROPOSED ARCH.

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was engaged. Three-quarters of a mile beyond that we come to the site for the arch to commemorate the people's sacrifices in the Civil War which reunited for all coming time the federation of states begun under Washington. Here is the life of a nation in panorama!

The site, as shown by the picture, is unimproved, so there are no buildings to tear away. Sixteenth Street is 160 feet wide, and devoted wholly to residence purposes. Each sidewalk is shaded by two rows of tulip and maple trees planted at even distances apart, their tops meeting to form a bower of rich foliage from late April till November. North of the arch site the land lies so as to afford an excellent place for massing troops for a military pageant, the imposing effect of which, marching through the arch and down the hill in solid rank stretching from one curb to the other, can readily be imagined.

Hitherto it has been customary to assemble the troops for great parades at the western end of Pennsylvania Avenue, and move them eastward through that thoroughfare; but this plan has always had the disadvantage of suspending trolley-car and all other traffic on the most important business street of the city for several hours on the day of the event, to the inconvenience of the whole community. If Sixteenth Street were made the main straight line of march, the public would be spared such annoyance, as no rails run through the street lengthwise, and only one pair crosses it in all the distance from the arch site down to the park in which the Jackson statue stands. Or, if desired, the march from the arch could be deflected at U Street and proceed down New Hampshire Avenue, which is of the same width as Sixteenth Street, and leads directly to the old rendezvous in Pennsylvania Avenue.

The arch plan is still inchoate. It is here put forward in the hope of contributing to the movement now on foot for the beautification of Washington, the one city whose ownership is shared by all Americans. The time is come when the capital of the nation, where one would naturally look for an expression of the highest art, should show really good out-of-doors monumental work; and it ought to be put up according to some comprehensive plan, not scattered about with utter indifference to appropriateness of location.

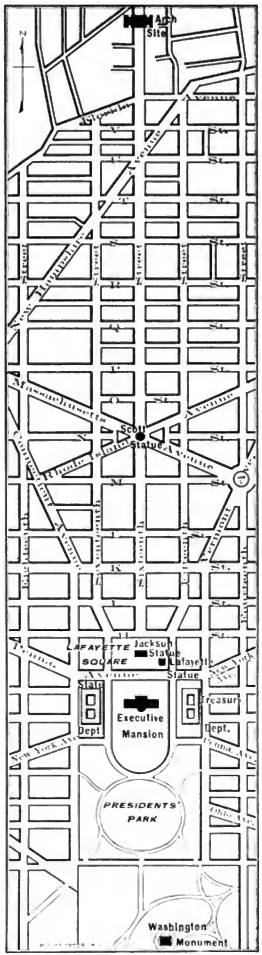


Chart showing the proposed site of the new arch in Washington, and the line of other memorials built, by chance, in historical sequence.

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There is a resolution already favorably reported to the Senate by the Committee on the District of Columbia, looking to the appointment of a Commission to decide upon improvements of the city that shall make it a splendid and worthy capital. The committee says:—

"Washington has reached that stage in its development when a well-matured scheme of development for its parks and boulevards, the location of its new public buildings, and the treatment of its bridges and monuments must be adopted. This necessity has found expression not only in resolutions passed by civic organizations of the District, but also in the expressions of public men and the public press throughout the country, and especially in the discussions of the representative association of the architects of the United States."

The resolution contains a quotation also from a statement by Mr. Glenn Brown, the Secretary of the Institute of American Architects:—

"The opportunity is too great to be cast aside. No country has a building more noble, grand, or beautiful than the Capitol, a shaft more imposing than the Monument, a free space between these buildings greater than the Mall; with such an opportunity to treat it so as to enhance the effect of the Capitol, the Monument, and the Executive Mansion! No country has such a monumental structure as the proposed Memorial Bridge; let this be located so as to enhance most effectively the treatment of the Mall."

A BORROWER AS A BANKER SEES HIM

AN EXPERIENCE ILLUSTRATING A MODERN DEVELOPMENT OF BUSINESS METHODS WHICH REASSERTS THAT A GOOD NAME IS RATHER TO BE CHOSEN THAN GILT-EDGED COLLATERAL

BY

LINDSAY DENISON

IF you will appoint a time to walk with me to a certain corner on Eighth Avenue in New York, I will show you a man who has within this last fortnight turned optimist. The change has been made in him by the suddenly acquired knowledge that, demagogues and ne'er-do-wells to the contrary notwithstanding, money is not everything in the business world, and character is something more than a matter for personal pride and self-congratulation and obituary notices; that character has a cash value in business transactions. There are a great many of us who need the lesson which this newly informed man has learned, and it is worth while for us to go over the ground which he has just traversed. He is a small grocer, with a corner store. Inasmuch as we are going rather more closely into his affairs than is perhaps permissible except for scientific purposes, we will follow the example of the surgeons in discussing their cases, and mis-name him John Smith.

John Smith has an equity in the store in which he sells groceries which is worth, conservatively speaking, about $6000. This property represents his savings through many years of the simplest and most straightforward dealings with his customers. Three weeks ago he was confronted with what seemed to him a difficult problem. Carpenters began to work in an abandoned saloon across the street and began to alter it to make a grocery of it. Mr. Smith learned that it was being prepared for occupancy by a man who was going to fit it up most elaborately and was going to carry a much broader variety of stock than was to be found on the Smith shelves. Mr. Smith knew the neighborhood well enough to understand that unless he could make his store much more attractive and his stock more comprehensive, the competitor would soon drive him out of business. He figured carefully and made up his mind that to meet the competitor on even terms he must lay hands on $6000 ready money at once.

Such was the situation which appalled Mr. Smith. With a property of but $6000 he could not possibly hope to secure more than $5000

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at 6 per cent. Though $5000 was not nearly enough, it was better than nothing, and he went to the bank. On the way there he pondered bitterly on his own business experience. He thought of the hundreds of times when he might have had the best of his customers and his wholesalers, generally without their realizing it. He thought of one instance, specifically, where he might have retrieved a mistaken purchase by the simplest sort of a misrepresentation about the way in which the goods were received. He made up his mind that if he had conducted himself as he had known many of his competitors to do he would have had $4000 more in property on which to borrow. Honesty had not paid him; for was not one who had doubtless grown fat on petty dishonesties in another neighborhood coming now into this neighborhood to drive him out of business? In his bitterness, Mr. Smith recalled the words of the cynic: "It is cheaper to move than to pay rent," and nodded savage approval of them.

At the bank he was referred to the president, and the president was busy. Waiting outside the president's door, Mr. Smith could hear the conversation within. He could not help hearing it. A man was pleading with the president for a loan of $8000 on a property which he represented was worth $16,000. The cold tone in which the banker responded to the appeal chilled Mr. Smith. It frightened him. If the bank was not anxious to lend $8000 on $16,000 security, with what scorn would it reject his own little plea for $5000 on $6000! He determined to throw himself on the mercy of the bank, — he laughed at himself sourly as the idea came to him, — and to ask for all they would give him, and to be thankful if they gave him but $2000.

His turn with the president came. He told his story and made his plea. The banker smiled.

"The man whose competition you fear," he said, "has just this minute left the chair in which you are now sitting." John Smith's heart sank again. His rival had a capital of $16,000! "And," continued the banker, "I will say to you just what I said to him; that we have money to loan and are glad to loan it; but that we must make our preliminary investigations in our own way before we can talk of amounts or terms. Would you object to letting us go over your books?"

"No," said Mr. Smith. He was puzzled. He hardly saw what his books had to do with his real estate qualifications to secure a loan. But the bank had the whip hand; it was not for him to raise obstacles. He was still more puzzled when the bank's accountant, in going over the books, made copious extracts from his records of purchases. He was almost suspicious as to the good faith of such a proceeding.

In three weeks he sat again by the bank president's chair.

"The loan committee met yesterday," the president said, "and took up your application. They authorized me to say to you that we will be very glad of the opportunity to lend you $6000 on a 6 per cent second mortgage on your store."

"Did I understand you to say $6000?" asked John Smith, catching his breath.

"You did," said the banker.

"Then I have undervalued my property," said Mr. Smith, half to himself.

"You have not," said the president. "On the other hand, your estimate was remarkably accurate." He swung around in his chair, and speaking more familiarly, continued: "Mr. Smith, I think it is only right that you should understand the reasons we make terms with you which apparently surprise you. I wish every one who does business with banks could know about them."

(The publication of this story is partly the result of the banker's desire to make those principles better known.)

"You came to us with $6000 security at about the same time another man came to us with $16,000. You needed $6000 or some part of it. He needed $8000. You get a loan that practically leaves us without a protecting margin. He got no loan at all. According to the uninformed conception of the way loans are made nowadays, matters should have gone just the other way. Most people think that the Bradstreet or Dun commercial rating of a man comprises nearly all a bank wants to know about him. Few people ever heard of the 'Credit Clearing House.' It is a concern down on Broadway to which we are subscribers, which has nothing to do with the amount of a man's property; it is altogether

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concerned with his business integrity. In subscribing to the 'Clearing House' we undertake not only the payment of their fee of $50 a year; we promise to furnish them with any information we may have about the business habits of any of our clients concerning whom any other subscriber may ask the clearing house.

"We asked them for a report on John Smith, grocer, and we furnished them with the names of many persons, taken from your own books, with whom you had business dealings. Some of these persons and firms were also members of the clearing house." The banker picked up a bunch of papers from his desk and consulted them as he continued: "We learned that you usually paid cash for your stock, and that when you bought on time you were always prompt with your payments; we learned that you always kept your promises to pay whether they were made to the Standard Oil Company or to the man up in Connecticut of whom you buy your vinegar. We found that the interest on your first mortgage has never been overdue, and has once or twice been paid ahead of time. We find that your fire and life insurance are always kept up scrupulously. We find that you once had a fire in the back of the store and based such modest demands upon it that your name is the synonym for honesty in the offices of the insurance company. We know that your wife has a running account at that department store over the way, and that her bills have always been paid by check within twenty-four hours after they have been rendered, except once."

"That," interrupted Mr. Smith, "was when she was out of town and I waited for her to check up the bill."

"It is so stated here," commented the president of the bank, "and indicates that you are not only prompt but careful. We find finally that you once refused payment of a bill and there was some litigation over it; but we learn, also, that the man with whom you had that trouble was a notorious cheat and double dealer.

"Now, Mr. Smith, on the credit clearing-house system you are rated 'B.' That means that whatever is lent to you will be repaid within the limits of human certainty. Your Bradstreet rating is too inconsiderable to mention. You would have to have many, many thousands where you now have but a few before you could approach a rating of 'B' on their books. But the time has gone by when banks and trust companies are guided in making their loans by the amount of money or property a man has or is said to have. That may help us determine the amount we lend him; but what we want to know before we lend him a cent — no matter what security he may offer — is what his business character amounts to. If he has a record for trickery, procrastination, carelessness, and large or petty dishonesties, we will not lend him money under any circumstances.

"I told you that we rejected the application of the man who wants to compete with you, though on the surface his application was a much better one for us than yours. He would not let us see his books. And the first thing we learned about him was that he had told the owner of the store which he intends to occupy, that he had already negotiated the loan with which he was to fit out and stock the store; in other words, he persuaded the landlord, through a lie, to invest a large amount of money in improvements. Our investigation ended there. We have not time to do business with a liar. In lending to you without a margin we are simply banking on your honesty, of which we are satisfied. That is all. Good morning, Mr. Smith."

The inferences as to the business methods and the business principles of these days to be drawn from the Eighth Avenue grocer's experience were so extremely optimistic that I did not dare set them down as typical of all similar transactions, before I knew whether the same conditions were observed in financial establishments where business is done, not by thousands of dollars, but by hundreds of thousands and by millions. So I went to the head of the great banking house of Spencer Trask and Company, and asked him how far integrity was an element in determining credit.

A PRACTICAL BANKER'S VIEW

In substance this is what Mr. Trask said: —

There is nothing more important to the banker who is asked to extend credit than the integrity of the applicant. If he is a man of bad repute, of known dishonesty, no banker

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wishes to deal with him. If he can lay down gilt-edged security, it may be accepted, but not in any way that will cause the bank to feel that it has run the slightest risk in any contingency that may arise. A specific case may be used as an illustration: John Doe approaches a banker to ask for money to tide him over in some difficulty. He presents his books for the bank's inspection, and possibly even his household accounts may be open for investigation. The bank must know not only what sort of a business he has been doing, but must know what his habits regarding paying his debts have been, whether he has been living beyond his income — in short, his whole business character must be laid bare. If the result of that examination satisfies the bank that he deserves to be helped, the money he needs will be lent to him; perhaps the one bank may not be willing to lend him all he needs, but it will take a share with other banks in relieving him. Now, the point is, that man may not have much surplus in money. He may not "be worth," as the phrase goes, anything at all. The bank is relying, not so much on what he has in money, but what he has in integrity. The bank can tell from his books whether he is likely to do well or ill after the money has been lent to him. If the signs point to success and his integrity is established, the loan is made. His established integrity is assurance that the loan will be used for the purpose for which it was made.

The question of the integrity of the man with whom the bank does business goes even further. If a man is prominently associated with persons of bad character, no matter how good his own character may be, the bank does not desire to carry him on its books. There are political leaders of undoubtedly large resources in the city of New York to-day whose accounts would not be accepted by many banks. There are banks so large that a few such men would be accepted without any feeling that they lowered the general tone of the integrity of the bank's clientele. But none but the very largest banks feel that they can afford to take such men. This discrimination is made against them not because their political views differ from those of the managers of the bank, but because there are individuals or cliques with whom they are personally concerned who are corrupt. Without mentioning the names of the men, Mr. Trask ran over a number of instances of men who had been unable to raise money when they wanted it, because their associations were such that the bank did not care to open the way for the charge that it was doing business with men of this or that manifestly corrupt clique.

As for the difference that a good reputation for integrity would make in determining the amount of credit that would be extended on a given piece of real estate security, it is quite possible for a man of known and established integrity to borrow a million and a half dollars on a piece of property worth approximately a million dollars. A man of known bad character, on the other hand, could not possibly borrow more than half as much; perhaps not so much as half as much.

Finally, one cannot consider the relation of integrity to credit even in this inconclusive superficial way without remembering that among the men who are the powers in the banking business it is no uncommon matter for a firm to overdraw its account in a bank for hundreds of thousands of dollars during the day without comment from the officers of the bank. They know that he knows what he is doing; they know that he would not overdraw if he were not able to make good the deficiency promptly; they know that he is an honest man, and will make the deficiency good, and the transaction does not call for more than a verbal understanding. It is based altogether upon honor.

Now, taking Mr. Trask's statement and the experience of John Smith, grocer, and putting the two together, how can we avoid the conclusion that the business community is something better than a pack of wolves preying on their fellow-men and on each other by deceit and hard-heartedness and all manner of evil? The man who says that he cannot succeed in business because he is too honest is a whiner and a coward, and dares not face his own real faults. Business, to-day, is honesty.

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GENERAL DEWET

THE MANY-SIDED, AGILE, HUMOROUS, GRIM LEADER OF THE BOERS—
HIS FAITH IN HIS OWN CAUSE—HIS OPINION OF BRITISH GENERALS

BY

HOWARD C. HILLEGAS

AUTHOR OF "THE BOERS IN WAR"

LIKE Yankee Doodle, in the old colonial ballad, Christian DeWet, the Commandant General of the forces of the Orange Free State, wears a feather in his cap. It is a black cock's feather, and it was placed there by himself at the beginning of the war as a sort of martial ornament. Now it is the badge by which his burghers distinguish him from their fellow-Boers. Figuratively he wears another feather — one accorded to him and his genius by those against whom he is fighting. He is the one general, Boer or British, who is receiving the praise of foe and friend, and the encomiums of his enemy are not the lesser in fervor or volume.

The meagre despatches which come to us from South Africa give but little insight into the character of the man whose name is daily associated with all the great events now occurring in that country. To the majority of people the name DeWet is suggestive of the quixotic; he appears to us in the light of a character in fiction rather than as a man of present action; his work is so remarkable that we can hardly credit it to this age.

Since the beginning of the war almost every British general and soldier in South Africa has at one time or another been bent upon the capture of this one man. A half-score of times the ending of the pursuit has been clearly defined, yet invariably he has escaped from the encircling cordons of men and guns. He has outfought, outwitted, and outgeneralled his opponents at every turn. He has done even more than escape from his pursuers. He has made more than five thousand prisoners of war, he has destroyed many millions of dollars' worth of his enemy's munitions, he and his small army of ten thousand men have subsisted for more than six months exclusively on the food and ammunition taken in battles, and, more than all, he has rejuvenated a cause that seemed to be lost beyond reclaim when Pretoria fell into British hands.

In personal appearance General DeWet is easily surpassed by every burgher in his commandos. In searching for the commander in chief of the forces, one would choose every one else first. He is not as tall as the average Boer, and he is much less handsome. Usually his clothing is as ragged as that of the poorest burgher, and when he is astride his favorite old horse, the Commandant General is an object of pity rather than of admiration. This is the result of his habit of exchanging articles of clothing with those of his men who appeal to him for new outfits. It is one of his ways of retaining the affection of his men, and it is only by ties of affection that they are bound to him. Several of the Boer officers wear distinctive uniforms with little gilt stars on the coat collars to indicate their rank; DeWet's black feather is his only badge of authority.

General DeWet is a many-sided man. Although he has a most gentle disposition, he frequently displays a violent temper. He is the intimate friend of all the men in his commandos, yet when there is a duty for them to perform he is cuttingly stern with them, and temporarily there is a wide gulf between them. For many years before the war he was the most bitter Anglophobe in the Free State Raad; now as soon as a British soldier falls into his hands he will insist that the prisoner have the best treatment that it is possible to give him. While forming the plans for a battle or movement he discusses the subject thoroughly with anybody and

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everybody, but as soon as he commences to carry the plan into effect he becomes dumb and refuses to disclose his purpose even to his most trusted lieutenants. Although he relishes a victory as keenly as any one, he will not allow one of his burghers to cheer or display other signs of joy after a battle is won. Unschooled in the tactics of war, he is a master tactician; born outside the breastworks of civilization, he is noble in manner and deportment; a bitter enemy of the British, yet he is a stanch admirer of their capable men. DeWet is rough, honest, and fearless, a devoted friend and a vengeful enemy; he is a marvellous anachronism as a warrior.

The most marked characteristics of the Commandant General are his imperturbability under adverse conditions, his zealous devotion to official work, his effervescent humor, his kindness to the burghers and prisoners, his great regard for the opinions of the enemy, and his unbounded, inextinguishable faith in the ultimate success of his and his country's cause. Although the greater part of his life has been devoted to peaceful pastoral pursuits, DeWet is as calm a fighter as though he had been a soldier from his youth. At Rooivaal, in June, while Lord Kitchener and thirty thousand troops were trying to capture him, DeWet spent a half day in leisurely looking over his devastated farm. As he was returning to his laager, a despatch-rider brought him the information that the British had occupied a certain favorable position. "Come," he said quietly, as he remounted his pony, "let us scoot!" The following day Kitchener reported DeWet's escape.

In his official capacity as Commandant General of all the Free State forces DeWet is most stern. He demands that his orders be obeyed to the letter, and when an officer deviates to the slightest extent he court-martials him. When a burgher disobeys his commands, he quickly becomes furious and threateningly draws off his coat with the purpose of inflicting corporal punishment. During a skirmish near the ten times captured village of Thaba N'Chu, in June, several burghers refused to hold a certain position. After they had refused a second time he beat them with the long raw-hide sjambok he always carries. After the fight he sought out the men and apologized to them. At Lindley he ordered his brother, General Peter DeWet, to move his commando to a certain position. The brother questioned the advisability of the movement, and the Commandant General promptly appointed another general to take his place, whereupon Peter DeWet surrendered to the British.

By his men he is regarded as the greatest humorist in the commandos, and they are constantly enjoying his jokes. Not long ago he promised three prisoners their freedom if they agreed to carry a message to their general. The message which the British general read was: "Please chain these three men; I am catching them every day." In April he and fifteen of his men rode to DeWetsdorp, where he was born, for the purpose of visiting his father. Late in the evening they discovered that McQueenie's Irish Fusiliers, three hundred strong, occupied the town. Promptly he sent this grim message to the British commander: "Surrender, or we shall annex you." At sunrise next morning DeWet had his entire commando on the spot, and after a short battle the Fusiliers were captured. While he was leading his forces northward from Wepener to Thaba N'Chu, with the British in close pursuit, he received a message from one of the commandants in the rear, asking for reenforcements for that part of the hard-pressed column. DeWet replied: "If you can't fight your way through, you deserve to be caught." After capturing vast quantities of stores and clothing, four thousand shells, and enough small-arms' ammunition to supply his army for more than two years, on his own farm at Rooivaal, in June, DeWet remarked to one of his generals: "That's a better crop than I ever raised on that place in peace times." Even in his favorite way of giving a command to move, "Come, let us scoot," there is a touch of humor, for the last word is one he has borrowed from his enemy's language.

His popularity with his men is the direct result of his many acts of kindness to them. He tries to please everybody except when his duty forbids, and then he follows his own plans even though he is without a single supporter. He is a burgher among the burghers, and there is not a vestige of officialdom around him. The poorest man in his camp may speak to him, without even saluting, at any time or on

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any topic, and the Commandant General will give his personal attention to the inquirer's wants. His three sons who are with him are probably the only men in his commandos who do not call him "Chris" when addressing him, and he hardly ever speaks to any one unless he has first grasped the man's hand in greeting. Such good-fellowship in other armies would be fatal to discipline, but in the Boer army it is provocative of a corps spirit that binds men together more firmly than the strictest regulations could do. His kindness to his own men is not more marked than that which he bestows upon British soldiers who fall into his hands. It is almost a craze with him to treat prisoners with the utmost respect and kindness, in order that his enemy may have no just grounds for saying that he conducts a dishonorable warfare. He insists that the prisoners shall receive better rations than his own men, and he will not allow one of them to walk while there is a conveyance in the camp. Once near Wepener he ordered that the only wagon with the commando should be cleared of its burden of ammunition so that twenty British infantrymen might ride. Realizing that the outside world can hear from him only through British reports, he is zealous in conducting such an honorable campaign that even his enemy must acknowledge his uprightness.

Since almost every British general has been pitted against him at some time or another, General DeWet has had ample opportunities for judging of their relative merits. He has a great contempt for Lord Roberts, Lord Kitchener, whom he missed capturing in June by a mere hair's-breadth, Methuen, and Baden-Powell. For General French, the great cavalry leader, he has a profound respect. Him he admires sincerely. "I do not think they will ever catch me," he said three months ago, "but if any one does, I hope the man is French. And I should like to capture him! I would not release him; I'd compel him to ride by my side so that I might admire him all the time."

PHILIP ARMOUR, MERCHANT

THE CHARACTERISTICS OF THE GREATEST DEVELOPER OF INDUSTRY PERHAPS THAT EVER LIVED — HOW HE WON SUCCESS AND HOW HE REGARDED IT — NEW ENGLAND THRIFT CARRIED TO THE HEIGHT OF GENIUS AND APPLIED TO A GREAT OPPORTUNITY

BY

H. I. CLEVELAND

"IDLENESS! I hate the word itself. Whether he be rich or poor, there is no more vicious man, in any community, than the one who is voluntarily idle. When I had fewer employees than I have now, and could do it, I made it my business to know if lazy men got into my employ. When I found one, I gave him a single chance to show that he could work. If he failed, I discharged him on the spot. My advice to every young man is to find out quickly what he can do or must do, and then to work until he is done with living. I never knew a healthy man that constant work injured — it's worry and neglect that kill men."

The late Mr. Philip D. Armour, of Chicago, made this statement sixteen years ago, sitting in his private car which stood on the track in the yards at St. Paul. In that speech, he told the story of his life. He was picturing with a few black and white strokes the rule of conduct that had brought him from the obscurity of a farmer's son in Oneida County, New York, to the eminence of the largest and greatest merchant in the world.

He himself did not die of old age nor of overwork, but from causes traceable directly to worry. The story has not been told, probably never will be, and possibly never should be, but Mr. Armour died from an affection of

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the heart that might not have been fatal but for worry.

He was preëminently a merchant, the buyer and seller of wares. But in his early life he had not the slightest intention of finding such a career. The Yankee stock from which he came was noted for its thrift, its keenness at a bargain, its good management of all gains. It was a stock which had faced the hardships of pioneer life in Connecticut. Transplanted to New York, it again endured privations and made sacrifices. It had personal pride and an extraordinary self-reliance. Its primary object was never, even in the lives of his father and his mother, to make money, but rather never to permit any one to take advantage of them in any transaction. In the Connecticut and New York days the orthodox religious spirit determined all rules of conduct. The elder Armour taught his sons that honesty and self-respect are essential to success. The mother taught them that truth must come first, and self-reliance next. The children obeyed these precepts implicitly.

Mr. Armour was wont to tell this story: "On Saturday night my mother would take us boys down to Oneida Creek for our weekly bath. Home-made soap would be poured upon our heads and then rubbed in. Often when the soapsuds were running into my eyes, making them smart like fire, I felt as though I would like to bite my mother's hand, but I knew better than to do it. I felt that her power was supreme and that I must submit to it."

MONEY AS A MEASURE AND TOOL

A strong desire for success was the keynote of his character and of all the Armour family preceding him. That success in his case took the form of a fortune of many millions was a fact that never greatly interested him except as he needed money for the transaction of his vast volume of business. If he had lived in another age, when success found its end in the capturing of so many castles, he would have been just as well satisfied. He cared very little for what success brought. It was the winning of it, the long chase, the danger safely passed, and the elation of success at the end that gave him content.

He never expended large sums of money upon himself. His dress was modest, his home simple, his art treasures few, his habits the plainest. He carried in his banks large sums of cash, but these were for the operations of his business. He gave freely to public and private charities. He was generous to his employees. He paid more than living wages, and he started a number of young men in business. The Armour Institute owes its foundation to his liberality and his brother Joseph's. But it is doubtful if his own needs required through most of the days of his life an expenditure of as much as $20,000 a year.

He clung to a dollar not because he cared for it, but because he believed in thrift. About spending he said: "I never put one dollar in any of my business affairs, not even when I was a boy at home, unless I was firmly convinced that I was going to get that dollar back in some form or other, and something more besides. I have never speculated as men ordinarily use the word. I have invested because I believed it was the best thing for me to do. I think that this is one of the reasons why my business grew."

But he enjoyed an extravagance sometimes. Several years ago he hired an English coachman. The coachman's wardrobe was very shabby. Mr. Armour noticed it and asked him: —

"Haven't you any better clothes than these?"

"Hi 'ave not, your honor. W'en Hi was at 'ome Hi wore 'is Grace's livery, hand I couldn't 'ave brought that with me; hand, hif your honor pleases — beggin' your honor's parding — Hi thought your honor would find me in your honor's livery."

"I haven't got livery — how could I find you in it?"

"Beggin' your honor's parding again, Hi would be 'appy hif your honor would give me livery."

"I don't care whether it's livery or not, but you must dress decently. You can't drive my carriage in togs like you have on now. Here," continued Mr. Armour, "go down to this place and tell the man to make you whatever clothes may be necessary," and he gave the coachman the address of a fashionable tailor.

A week later a bill came to Mr. Armour's office. The clerks read it, whistled softly, and passed it from one to another to admire. There was a box coat at $90, top coat at $110,

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livery suit at $85, gloves, breeches, and waistcoats and more livery, until the bill footed up about $500. The clerks amused themselves guessing what he would say and do when he saw that bill. All agreed that it would be something out of the common. Mr. Armour was vehement on occasion, and when necessary he could inject a great deal of force into his speech, as many a clerk in his office knew.

The bill was laid on his desk, with other papers, and when he came in, the clerks stood by in silence awaiting the explosion. Mr. Armour finally reached the tailor's bill. He started at first sight of the figures, then an amused expression and later a broad smile came on his face.

"Come here, Thomas, come here, Webster," he said, calling two of his men and holding up the bill for their inspection. When they had looked at it a moment, he laughed till his sides shook, and said with an air of satisfaction: —

"That's the kind of a coachman to have; he knows his business."

Not many men carried so plainly stamped on their faces the distinctive traits of their character as did Mr. Armour. If you wished to know one secret of his success, you had but to take a look at his solid, massive chin and jaw. A man with such a face never failed in anything. There was in it energy and determination which swept all before it. When to this formidable jaw and chin and the well-poised mind there were added a body strong with the vigor of generations of healthy ancestors, the digestion of a country boy, and a dash of humor, and you have Mr. Armour. He was a big, solid, healthy-minded, strong-bodied, good-tempered man with one code of morals, that he applied as strictly to his private life as to his business life. To his last hour he held the grim determination to do these things: —

HIS COMMERCIAL CREED

To pay all debts in full and to require full payments from those who owed him.

Never to waste energy, money, or stock, and to make all work productive.

Never to forgive one who wantonly injured him; and to make few friendships, but those lasting ones.

To destroy competition by absorption or by obliteration; never to admit that any rival production or work of his own kind of trade was better than his own.

To work — work — work — and to save — save — save.

"I never give bonds," said Mr. Armour once, "unless absolutely compelled to by the law. The word of Armour's is as good as any bond that was ever written and acknowledged by a notary. I have employees in every part of the world, and they know, and my customers know, that when I say I will do a thing, it is as good as done."

So far as he was concerned or his personal conduct of his business, there is no doubt that this was true. The house of Armour in its nearly forty years' history has made errors, has suffered from mistakes, has sometimes taken the unpopular side of certain propositions, but even the men who knew Mr. Armour the least, concede that this was never done by any direct act or wish of his own, or by his authority. There is the strongest evidence that he suffered intensely from the blunders (to write charitably) of those beneath him who did contrary to what he would have done himself if it had been possible for one man to manage every detail of his enormous business.

During at least thirty years of his business career he tried the frightful experiment of handling the details. He rose at five o'clock in the morning; he and his wife breakfasted by candle light, and he walked into the city to his offices, arriving there at or just before seven o'clock. In the winter it was barely daylight when he started his daily labors. He took a short time for luncheon at noon and was back to his desk. He rarely left it until five or six o'clock. He knew his hundreds of clerks by name, he knew the capacity of each for work, he knew also the men in his stock-yards and many of the men on his railroads. But the volume of his business grew too great for him. He was forced to bring in other men, whose executive authority necessarily had to be nearly as great as his own.

He grieved that he was obliged to surrender a portion of the burden to others. Some of his subordinates were of strong character, and some were not. Some believed in his methods of business, and some did not. It is safe to say that all the trouble which has arisen during the last ten years between the house of Armour and state legislatures, the national

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government and foreign governments, came from the conduct of men in Mr. Armour's employ who did not have his authority for what they did and whose acts were personally disclaimed by him when they became known to him.

This is one of the saddest things in his history. He was a man of many gentle inclinations. He was proud of his father and of his mother, of the name of Armour and of his own reputation for fair dealings with other men. He loved children, he unostentatiously gave of his wealth to any deserving cause that was presented to him. But the first time in his life that the report came to him that the house of Armour was accused of having bribed certain members of a state legislature in order to defeat a proposed meat inspection bill, he turned around in rage and dismay, brought his clenched fist down upon his desk, and said to a friend:

"I have never bought nor bribed any man. I will not do it. This is an infamous damned lie. You tell So-and-So that I have never authorized the expenditure of a single dollar for bribery or corruption purposes. When my meats cannot stand the test of any fair and honest inspection bill, state or national, I will go out of business."

HIS STERLING INTEGRITY

No other man suffered more from the canned beef scandal of the Spanish-American War than Mr. Armour. It was not suffering due to any fear of exposure of alleged fraudulent acts of his own, but it was the regret, the sorrow, and the anger of a man who suddenly discovered that after a long and honorable career, after half a century of striving to do the best he could, his name had been besmirched by men for whose employment he was responsible, but whose sense of honor was not as high as his own, and who, when tried, were found wanting.

The inside history of the canned beef scandal is now known. The men who know all its details, know also that Mr. Armour was in no wise responsible for it, and that the day he first knew that his house was accused of attempted corruption of government officials, his life nearly passed from him. Indeed, he never rallied from that shock; for while he never boasted of his sense of honor, he said truly to those to whom he gave his confidence that he had made his wealth without selling his soul. Mr. Armour appeared before Senator Vest's committee of the United States Senate in 1889, and testified concerning the methods of the dressed beef firms of the nation. In his testimony he said:—

"My firm has never endeavored to force local butchers to buy our meats, nor entered into competition with them except in one instance. I never had an arrangement with other packers by which one was not to employ a man discharged by another. I never agreed to divide contracts for furnishing beef to public institutions and then to divide the receipts. I have never profited by the alleged favoritism of railroads. I never made any arrangements with any one for fixing prices in buying cattle."

Two years later, in discussing the objections made both in Germany and in France against American pork, he said:—

"I think that any country has a perfect right to demand that food products imported into her territory should be perfectly healthy. I am willing to meet all reasonable demands in this regard. Our own interests as well as common commercial honesty would cause us to see that no diseased meat should be exported from our places. I am willing to have my goods rigidly examined, I want new markets, but I never have had the slightest intention of ruining a new avenue of trade by the smallest kind of dishonesty."

These incidents are recalled, not in defence, but as side lights on his character. That he attempted the impossible in his life there is no question. He set up his own standard of honesty, his own ideas of rigid business dealings, for twenty-five thousand employees and a volume of business amounting to $200,000,000 a year, and expected that he could not only weld together this great force, but could also impose his personality and his honor upon every man in it. No human being has ever succeeded in doing this, and the effort has sent more men to the madhouse than it has made millionaires. That Mr. Armour failed in this respect could not be extraordinary to any one but himself.

Yet he was well liked by those who worked under him. He never demanded more of them than he was ready to do himself, and

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he was loyal to all those who gained his confidence. He was indulgent to beginners. When the impatient head of some department would complain to him of a new clerk, he would say with a laugh: —

"Now, wait; just be patient with him until he has got over his gawky time, and we will make a good man of him yet."

A clerk who had been out all night came to the office before seven in the morning. He was just opening his books when Mr. Armour came in. The clerk hung his head guiltily, thinking that his misbehavior had been discovered. Mr. Armour briskly walked up to him and said: —

"You are an early riser."

"Yes," said the clerk, thinking he must make some excuse. "I was a bit behind in my books and thought that I ought to catch up, so I came down early."

"That's right, young man," was the rejoinder. "I like to see that. Get to work early and stay at it, and you will win."

Once when he was locked with some friends in his private car which stood in the railroad yards in St. Paul, a newspaper reporter who had been ordered to see him managed to get into his presence. Mr. Armour whirled about in his chair and asked rather gruffly: —

"What do you want, young man?"

The reporter briefly explained that he had been peremptorily ordered by his employer to secure an interview with him.

"I don't give interviews," rejoined Mr. Armour.

"I know that," said the reporter, "but I've got to get one." Then as a thought struck him, he added, "My father worked in the same field with you when you were a boy."

"Oh, he did, did he?" said Mr. Armour. "Well, is that any reason why I should give you the interview?"

The reporter could not say that it was. Suddenly the merchant began to laugh and said: —

"I remember your father. He went into the army, and I got the itch of money-making. I guess we both got the burnt end of the stick. Well, I never meet a young man as persistent as you are and who has learned to be respectful to others that I don't feel like giving him a little advice. Keep at it. Don't let up. Let liquor alone, pay your bills, marry a good woman, and pound away at whatever you want. After a while something is bound to give way. You needn't put that in the interview. Take out your note-book."

Then Mr. Armour talked entertainingly for fifteen minutes on wheat and the packing of beef. When he had finished, he said: —

"You can print that. If you are ever in Chicago, call on me."

Ten years afterwards this same reporter walked into Mr. Armour's Chicago office and was greeted with this: —

"You are the young man that got an interview out of me on the strength of his father. That's not always a good plan to follow. Stand on your own feet. How are you? Where are you working? Have you saved any money? Are you doing well? Want another interview?"

The reporter said that he had simply called to pay his respects. Mr. Armour then shook hands with him and said in parting: —

"I am a busy man. I'm too busy. I will always be glad to see you, especially if you're doing well. There is no reason why a young man shouldn't do well if he wants to, and there is no excuse for an old man doing wrong."

HIS HATRED OF CANT

He had another side to his character, as this story will indicate: On one of his many quiet trips through the poorer parts of Chicago, Mr. Armour came upon a family in great destitution. The husband had broken his leg while at work. The wife was suffering from rheumatism. The six children were without food. Mr. Armour did not stop to inquire what the antecedents of the family were, but that same day sent food and money to them.

Soon afterward a clergyman who knew of the case called on Mr. Armour and told him that he had made a mistake in succoring the hungry ones.

"Why so?" asked the merchant, stroking his side whiskers in a meditative manner.

"Because," was the minister's reply, "the woman is an irreligious sinner, fallen from grace and society."

"You —," replied Mr. Armour, "you are a canting bigot unfit to teach the doctrines of Jesus Christ. Get out of this office."

Mr. Armour was never inclined to discuss the magnitude to which his business interests

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grew. At one time in the conduct of his affairs he employed 23,000 men, or more than many a railroad corporation employs at any time. The average number of men drawing salaries from him has been 15,000 for a number of years. In busy times this number was often increased to 20,000. His pay-roll for the last five years was from $6,000,000 to $10,000,000 a year. He once spoke of this with a touch of pardonable pride: —

"Through the wages I disburse and the provisions I supply I give more people food than any other man living."

The men who remained long in his service were always loyal to him and felt the highest admiration for his character. One time when a strike was started among them eight hundred refused to leave simply because he had always been fair with them. The places of those who did strike were taken by former employees, who came voluntarily and offered assistance when he needed it most. In his business career Mr. Armour showed his appreciation of the faithful services of his employees by promoting them one by one. One of his partners, Mr. Cudahy, was a poor Irish boy who, developing excellent business capacity, was advanced from stage to stage until he is now a man of great wealth.

At his packing houses in the Union Stockyards at Chicago it was no uncommon thing for 800,000 steers and 1,800,000 hogs to be disposed of in a single year, not taking into account all the other kinds of food-producing animals handled by his establishments, not only in Chicago, but at Omaha and Kansas City.

A New York mathematician worked it out once that all the animals disposed of in the Armour Chicago plant in the year 1892 would, if laid out in a continuous row, reach in a straight line across the continent from the Atlantic to the Pacific. And that year alone there were 2,539,000 animals disposed of in the Chicago house, which is equivalent to thirteen animals a minute during working hours.

Such is the magnitude of the business built up by the man who once regarded Oneida Creek as a river and Stockbridge as the circumference of his desires. Incidental to this packing business Mr. Armour owned and operated over 5000 railroad cars; controlled more than fifty acres of ground for his works; owned a storage capacity of 150,000 tons for his meat products; owned packing houses at Kansas City and Omaha; owned six of the largest grain elevators of Chicago, with a capacity exceeding 10,000,000 bushels; owned a fleet of vessels on the lakes; was a bank and railroad director; and found time to play with a baby whenever one crossed his path.

In 1892, when the consolidation of all the Armour interests was brought about, the consolidation of the packing, elevator, and storage interests, East and West, represented a capital of not less than $50,000,000. The aggregate annual output of all the Armour houses at that time was estimated at $100,000,000. At the present time the capitalization is not supposed to be less than $75,000,000, and the annual output about $200,000,000. In 1891 Mr. Armour refused $10,000,000 for his provision business alone, which English capitalists desired to purchase, and at that time his investment in his elevator business amounted to $5,000,000.

THE UTILIZATION OF WASTE

The general public has never appreciated that in the development of by-products Mr. Armour was the pioneer in a field now yielding thousands of dollars of profit annually to packers, and a large sum in wages to labor. By the help of his chemists and the young men who were ambitious to succeed in his work, he found that the steer contained for the commercial world far more than mere flesh for food. As early as 1866 he began making suggestions that there was enormous waste in the slaughter houses. Blood trickled away into the sewers, immense amounts of fat escaped, bones were thrown into a heap, hides were carelessly treated, and in a word profits were given to the sewers that might be saved for the strong locker. One of the first moves was made to utilize blood for buttons; then came the erection of a felt factory, to which tails went to be made into felt; blood also was sent to the sugar refineries; and bones were converted into handles and ornaments. Hoofs were carefully saved, and the process of saving every part of the steer was carried so far that at the present time nothing escapes conversion to commercial use but gastric juice.

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It was in the Armour plants and under the encouragement of Mr. Armour himself that the experiments with all these by-products and many more commenced and were carried to a successful issue. The result was the addition of millions to his fortune and the increase in the number of men he employed by hundreds. He became a glue manufacturer, a felt dealer, a button maker, a horn and hoof tradesman, and what not. Any of his men that came to him with a suggestion of a new use to be made of waste products received help, was told to go ahead and develop his ideas, and if they were good ones, practical use was made of them at once.

The Armour profits from by-products were estimated in 1896 at more than $1,000,000. What he produced in this way not only went to the civilized nations of the world, but found their way into Asia, South America, and Africa. Foreign students and scientists were glad to visit this country and to go through his plants and learn, if they could, how he did it. Sometimes they learned and sometimes they did not, but they always paid him the compliment of having shown how to do more with the parts of an animal than any man who preceded him.

CHARACTERISTIC STORIES

The stories told of Mr. Armour are as numerous as the leaves on a tree. How many are true and how many are made up it would be hard to say, but I repeat some that came from within the business circle in which he moved.

He had a prejudice against the shirts made from various materials for summer outings. Plain white linen was all he liked. A son of an old friend in his employ came to work one morning in a flannel shirt that would have been fashionable at Bar Harbor. When "Uncle Philip" saw it, he called him to his desk, handed him an order good for six shirts at any haberdasher's, with the recommendation that he get them and wear them — and he did.

During the great stockyards strike in July, 1887, a newspaper reporter who had been stationed in the yards themselves came into the city without changing his fatigue dress. He was sent in haste to interview the great packer and was shown to his desk. Mr. Armour glanced at the muddy top boots, the soiled clothing, and the not scrupulously clean hands of his questioner, and said: —

"Don't you think your paper can send a man to me with decent clothes on?"

"Mr. Armour," replied the indignant reporter, "I have been at the stockyards night and day for months doing my duty to the people that hire me, and I have to wear these clothes. I hadn't time to change them when I came in, and I'm going back as soon as I can."

"Young man," apologized the millionaire, "you know more than I do. I beg your pardon." And after taking his name and giving him an interview that could not have been obtained under less favorable circumstances, Mr. Armour wrote an autograph letter of commendation to the editor.

"How is it that you are late every morning?" he asked of an astounded clerk who had not dreamed before that Mr. Armour was aware of his existence.

"Well," replied the clerk, "I am only a few minutes late."

"That's just it. That's why you are not a good man. You are just a few minutes too late in all the bright things you do."

A venerable-looking man strolled into Mr. Armour's office a few years ago and asked for the head of the firm. He introduced himself as the teacher of the school in northern New York which young Phil had attended in 1845. The venerable gentleman was inclined to be obsequious.

Mr. Armour did not warm up; he asked the old man whether he remembered that he had expelled a boy once for taking an innocent ride with a good-looking girl schoolmate, humiliating the boy so much that he had run away to California when the trip overland had to be made in a wagon.

The old pedagogue tried to explain. Mr. Armour said that he did not want any explanation; but he would not profess friendship for a man who had treated him so meanly when a boy.

The children always loved Mr. Armour, and no prettier story of the affection which they bore him is to be found than the one told of him years ago by a Chicago business man, who witnessed the incident. The story is this: —

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"Last week, on one of those blistering days on which the fading summer used to show that it was still alive, a man who lives on Prairie Avenue happened by a rare chance to be driving down Clerk Street, near Thirty-third. Oh! it was a mighty hot day! The air was full of dust from the half-paved streets and sulphurous with smoke from the locomotives, and the tar was melting on the roofs of the cow sheds behind the humble cottages. The man from Prairie Avenue who ponders these things when there is nothing else on his mind, and when his attention is turned to them, thought of his own happy baby at home and wondered how the little ones in these wretched places withstood the terror of this tropical week. He was wondering, when he heard a familiar voice. Leaning over the side of his carriage, he saw something that made him rub his eyes. A stout, stoop-shouldered man, with a bald head and puffs of reddish side-whiskers, was standing in a little pavilion. A line of babies just able to toddle was drawn up before him, and the stout man with the bald head and the side-whiskers was tossing a bean-bag to the babies and laughing till his round shoulders shook.

"'Mr. Armour!' the man called from the carriage. The stout man turned with an expression which he didn't often assume in his leisure hours, when the bean-bag, hurled with great force by little Bridget Delaney, landed on his side-whiskers. Then he turned his back on the man in the carriage and resumed the game of bean-bag, and the man in the carriage chuckled and intimated that he might be everlastingly condemned if this didn't beat all, and drove on. The next morning it was known all up and down the street that the millionaire, Philip D. Armour, spent his afternoon in a day nursery playing bean-bag with the babies."

Mr. and Mrs. Armour attended the Congregational Church. He never held sectarian beliefs. When he spoke of what the religion of his training-school should be, he said: —

"Its religion will be sixteen ounces to the pound, but undenominational; and it makes no difference to me whether its converts are baptized in a soup bowl, a pond, or the river."

Many men suddenly or gradually made rich become ashamed of "trade." This was not true of Mr. Armour. As "trade" had given him his fortune, he in turn honored "trade," and maintained through all the years of his life that no young man could render the world a greater service than by making himself an alert, progressive, and commanding business man. He conceded to art and to literature all that others demanded for them, but "trade" to him was an art in itself. If it was not an art before he was born, it certainly became one before he was done with it.

In the famous Leiter wheat deal, when it seemed as if every combination was in the market to defeat Mr. Armour, his head kept cool and he proved victor in the end. The instant that he won he was one of the first to step in and proffer aid to Joseph Leiter, justifying the remark often made of him: —

"Mr. Armour will fight you to the death, but when a fellow says 'Enough,' he will carry him in his arms."

In business he was the incarnation of method and rigid commercial principles. With heaps of food scraps piled up in his packing house, — enough to feed all the poor of Chicago, — not one scrap would he give away. This was business, and business thrift, and both were sacred in his eyes. The packing house was purely a money-making machine. Every crumb that fell from the table there was money and had nothing to do with charity. He did his charity in other ways, and in ways entirely his own, — outside of business. That the poor were always visiting him was a good indication that they had been encouraged to come. He hated sham and pretence, and above all cant and hypocrisy.

He said once to a favorite employee: —

"When I am done with work, George, remember this, — that I always had great respect for facts. If there were fewer theorists in the world, there would be more successes. Facts can be discounted at any bank, but a theory is rarely worth par. Stick to facts."

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"CAN I MAKE A FARM PAY?"

"YES, IF YOU LIKE IT—A COG IN THE WHEEL OF TOWN-LIFE OR AN INDEPENDENT PROPRIETOR—IT DEPENDS ON YOURSELF"—THE QUESTION DISCUSSED OUT OF PERSONAL EXPERIENCE—WHAT SOME MEN HAVE DONE

BY

PROFESSOR L. H. BAILEY

OF THE AGRICULTURAL DEPARTMENT OF CORNELL UNIVERSITY

"CAN one make a living on a farm?" Over and over again, this question comes to me. I answer, "Yes, for many people do."

"Would you advise me to go on a farm?" This question, in one form or another, comes to every teacher in an agricultural college. It is a common question in the East, for people are beginning to feel the stress and unrest of city life. I cannot answer the question, for it is a matter of personality.

City life is a social machine; or, rather, it is a congeries of machines. A few men are managers and engineers, but the ninety and nine are cogs and pins and links. Most men desire to be cogs, or at least they are willing to be. The daily life is a routine which is made and prepared. Having reached a position that insures a comfortable financial return, the struggle for existence is reduced to its lowest terms, and the person is content. Now and then a person longs for a broader view, more dependence on personal initiative, a more perfect individualism. Perhaps such a person may not go on a farm, but he may consider it.

THE WISH FOR INDEPENDENCE

This, then, is the first advice that I can give the person who thinks of leaving the city to become a farmer,—do not consider the proposition for a moment unless your ideal is individualistic. You are to depend on yourself. You are to make your own way. You are to live your own life. You must be resourceful.

My second advice is this,—be sure that you love the country and everything there is in it. Be sure that you do not go with the feeling that you are giving up the pleasures of life. Be sure that a dandelion is worth as much as a theatre. You are to be company for yourself. The birds will sing as no opera singer ever sang. The flowers will bloom in the meadows. The brooks will laugh on the pebbles and sleep under the quiet banks. The white clouds will float in the sweet blue air. Be sure that your heart is ripe before you move to the country.

I hope that you have a wife. If she thinks as you do about the country, the problem is half solved. If her heart is wedded to the city, stay where you are. I hope you have children,—and what healthy, natural child under twelve years of age would not love the country?

THE COUNTRY POINT OF VIEW

Half of country life is in the living. It is in the point of view. It is in the way in which we look at things. Thoreau rejoiced when it rained, because he knew that his beans were happy. One day my man was agitated because the woodchucks were eating the beans. He would go to town at once and buy a gun. I asked him how many beans the woodchucks would probably destroy. He thought from one-eighth to one-quarter of an acre. Now, one-quarter of an acre of field beans should bring me a net cash return of three or four dollars. I told him that he could not buy a gun for that money. If he had a gun, he would waste more time killing the woodchucks than the beans would be worth. But the worst part of it would be that he would kill the woodchucks, and at daylight morning after morning I had watched the animals as they stole from the bushes, sniffed the soft morning air, and nibbled the crisp young leaves. Many a time I had

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spent twice four dollars for much less entertainment. My neighbor thought that I ought to cut out the briers in the fence corner. I told him that I liked to see the briers there. He remarked that some folks are fools. I replied that it is fun to be a fool.

But you will not need to give up your connection with the world just because you move on a farm. You will have a few books on farming and on nature. Perhaps you will read less, but you will think more. You will have a few periodicals. You will receive the experiment station bulletins. You will be interested in the village library and in the school. You will have opportunity to hear lectures. Now and then you will go to the city, and you will enjoy it more for seeing it less. The theatre will mean more to you because you do not go too often. You will find other and more satisfying and less expensive entertainment. If it is not in your nature to find such entertainment, do not leave the city.

"But can I make money enough to be comfortable?" Yesterday I addressed an audience of pupils in whose minds this question was uppermost. "If you were all to be merchants," I said, "I should expect most of you to fail. If you were all to be lawyers, many of you would have no clients. If you were all to be doctors, some of you would have no patients. Yet, I expect that every one of you will succeed; but it will be because each of you does something which he is fitted to do." Many men succeed at farming, and many fail. The difference lies in the farmer. The individual who fails in the city drops into some other man's business and becomes a cog. The farmer who fails is seen and known of men; but eventually he, too, becomes a cog.

You will not need to get as much money in the country as you do in the city, because you will raise half or more of your living, and your entertainment bills will be less. At the end of every year, you should be able to put away a little extra money. You will have the satisfaction of knowing that every stroke of work that you do and every improvement that you make, adds to your capital stock: you are building a home for yourself and family at the same time that you are earning a living, but in the city you are turned out of doors when you can no longer work.

WORK FOR MUCH AND EXPECT LITTLE

My third advice is this, — be sure that you have good executive ability and that you will be content with moderate financial returns. Some men make fortunes on farms, but they usually have relatively large investment in the business and they have the power of handling men and of making money from their labor, as well as the power of growing and handling crops. These are men who would make money from buttons, or shoes, or any other business. They are business men. Hundreds of my farmer friends are well to do. They are free of debt, have comfortable and personal homes, have the legitimate comforts of life, drive their own horses, and are beholden to no man. These are the typical farmers. They are not "clod-hoppers." They are not pessimists. They are well fed and well clothed. They know what is going on in the world. They read. They ask more direct and pointed questions than all the experiment stations in the world can answer. They think their own thoughts. Come with me to some of their meetings, and I will show you a body of men who will compare with your merchants and lawyers and doctors.

The average earnings of American farms, good and bad, is probably not far from $1000 a year. Eliminating the farms that earn nothing or less than nothing, the average certainly would be encouraging. If one is to be successful in farming, the farmer should run the farm: too often the farm runs the farmer. Men make money on the farm: whether you can or not, I do not know.

"But can a man who has always lived in the city become a successful farmer?" Yes; but the chances are against him. The longer he lives in the city, and fills a subordinate position, and thinks second-hand thoughts, the greater are the chances that he will not make a good farmer. He loses the power of initiative. He is not "practical." He is not accustomed to manual labor. Too often he is not frugal. Yet, despite all this, the fact that one is a "city man" does not of itself incapacitate him for farming. Some of the most successful farmers I know were not born on the farm. They went into farming without prejudices and with the advantage of business training. They were not bound

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by traditions. Farmers suffer more from lack of business training than from any other cause. The city man often succeeds in the country because he is trained in business methods. The country man often succeeds in the city because he is trained in relying on himself.

SETTLE IN THE ONE RIGHT PLACE

"Where shall I settle, if I go into farming?" Not long ago I attended a horticultural convention in Baltimore. The subject of peach growing was under discussion. A man from Connecticut told of the incomparable peaches that are grown on the northern coast of Long Island Sound. A man from southwestern Michigan said that his country was a natural peach region, — there peaches grew to perfection. A man from the uplands of western Maryland said that his was the ideal peach country. A man from the Chesapeake peninsula was sure that his was the natural and perfect country for the peach. As my turn to speak came last, I testified that all the others were wrong, and that the only perfect peach region was a certain rocky hillside six miles north of Ithaca, N. Y. Of course I was right.

In the horticultural department at Cornell University we have an organization properly known as the "Horticulturist's Lazy Club." Each fellow, by an unwritten law, pays his "dues" by entertaining the club an evening. The student usually begs off because he "don't know enough"; but he is always willing to talk about the state from which he comes. "Why, my dear sirs," exclaimed the Kansas man, "if you will fold a map of the United States once each way, where the two folds meet — there is Kansas!" The centre of the universe is where we live; and if we love our home, there the finest crops, of one thing or another, can be grown. Stand on your own doorstep on a starry night. Note the myriad suns that roll in the depths of the sky. See the great concave of the milky way. Consider the dome of the welkin. Swing the radius of the mighty arch: the centre is where you stand.

If you contemplate moving to the country, save enough money to pay half or more down on the farm and have at least $500 left for contingent and running expenses. Many a good man fails at farming because he has locked all his capital in the investment and then cannot hire help or buy fertilizer or spray his trees at the critical time. Many a crop of fruit has been lost because the grower had not sufficient means to give the land extra tillage in a dry time. Better be in debt for a part of the purchase price than to be handicapped for capital until the crops come in.

Begin small. Learn the business. Don't go into "fancy farming." At first, give more attention to the condition of your soil and to the welfare of the crops and stock, than to the building of fences. Handsome buildings are the result of good farming, not the cause of it. Never mind if people don't like the looks of your farm: it is yours. Go to the farmers for advice. If you are industrious, intellectually honest, and willing to learn, they will respect and help you.

THE THINGS TO GROW

If you buy a small farm, — as most city men must, — aim to produce things for a special trade. Don't try unusual things like mushrooms and ginseng, but grow the things that every market wants, — only grow them better than most men do. Last season one of my New York friends made money from watermelons, notwithstanding the fact that Georgia melons of greater size filled his markets. Grade your products and pack them carefully. Use neat new tasty packages. Advertise. Put on a label. The buyer will pay you for the package and the advertising. Last year my peaches brought me an unusually high price. I sold them under large labels in red and green ink. One person thought it foolish for me to spend money for printer's ink. I told him that I was not: the purchaser paid the printer's bill. Raise a good thing. Then adopt the advertiser's maxim, "If you have a good thing, push it." The nearer you are to the small city markets in the East, the better will be your chances of securing a special customer. The local grocer will find that customer for you, and will sell the products better than you can.

If your means are small, run your farm yourself. Do not trust to a manager or a "farmer." Remember that the farmer and his family are to be fed off the place. What they consume would go a long way toward

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supporting you. If you are farming primarily for pleasure and recreation, you should have a manager. If you are farming for a living, you must work. Your work need not be tedious, however, if you think while you work. It need be no harder than shop-work, and not so dirty. You will have a warm dinner, without soot. You will lie on the grass after dinner and watch the swallows. When you are tired, you will stop under a tree and sleep.

Now, my city friend, you have the problem before you. Never were there so many opportunities in farming as now. Neither economically nor socially is agriculture on the decline. It is only changing. Old methods are going out, and many farmers are going with them. Whether you will succeed or fail if you go to the country, no one knows. The fact that some succeed should make you hopeful. The fact that some fail should make you cautious. Remember that your compensation is in living as much as in money. For myself, my heart is in the country.

A New York Journalist's Farming Experience

By W. A. Linn

A New York City journalist by profession, and without any experience in farming, I bought a farm of 172 acres in Sussex County, N. J., taking possession in the spring of 1895. My motives were a liking for rural life and pursuits, a faith in the paying possibilities of a farm conducted on wisely liberal principles, and the desire to have a retreat to which I could look as a resting place when I tired of the duties of my profession. The principal source of cash revenue for the Sussex county farmers is milk, which is either sold to dealers who have receiving depots in the neighborhoods, or, in rarer cases, shipped to dealers in New York. I put the farm in charge of a practical farmer who had conducted it for several years for the former owners, on the coöperative principle, each of us furnishing half the cows, he doing the farming and each having half the proceeds.

A recent trip to California had directed my attention to the profits of fruit culture, on the line of actual *cultivation* of the orchards, and not simply "letting nature take her course"; and after inquiry, I set out about 3000 peach trees and 225 apple trees. To increase the fertility of the farm, I had old fields fertilized, "cropped," and then seeded to grass, using the best seed in the market. Several wet places in the meadows I tile-drained, in one instance of this kind using the spring water thus obtained (at no place less than three feet from the surface) to supply unfailing running water at the kitchen door and throughout the stables. I built a small silo the second year (the only one in the neighborhood), and a much larger one the next year, as a result of the first experiment. I have been in a sense a "non-resident landlord," visiting the farm only once a month from April to autumn, and spending a month or more there then.

SATISFACTORY RESULTS

Results after five years: The farm, which, at the time I took possession, my farmer told me would do justice to only 15 cows, now supports 30, with some young cattle, and could do better. My share of the net profit of the dairy, which was $254 the first year, was $614 last year. The general farm account showed a *net loss* to me the first year of $143.41, charging all permanent improvements to additional cost of farm. Last year there was a *net profit* of about 5½ per cent on the investment. My peach orchards bore their first crop this year, yielding about 4500 baskets. The big crop everywhere kept prices down, and an unprecedented drought hurt the fruit, but my share of the net profit of the orchards was about $850. If the rest of the farm does as well as last year, my net profit on the investment this year will be about 15 per cent.

The great obstacle to this kind of "non-resident farming" is the difficulty of finding a tenant who will back up the owner in "intensive" methods, and look out for the owner's interests, in keeping things in good order and perfect repair. I am convinced that, with my present experience, if I were willing to live on the farm myself, and run it my way, I could make it pay better than it does.

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LITERATURE FOR THE MILLIONS

THE EXTRAORDINARY CAREER OF MR. ALFRED C. HARMSWORTH, THE OWNER OF THIRTY-FOUR ENGLISH JOURNALS OF PRODIGIOUS CIRCULATIONS — HOW CHEAP ENGLISH AND FRENCH PAPERS OUTGROW AMERICAN ONES

BY

J. O'HARA COSGRAVE

A GENERATION ago the "great" journalist was a man with big thoughts and a high style whose influence depended on his ideas about the topics of the day. Now the great journalist is the proprietor of the paper with the largest circulation. The "largest circulation" is a local, a national, and an international condition. Every city in the country has "the largest circulation." In London it is the *Daily News*. This is the newspaper which Mr. Alfred C. Harmsworth began three years ago, and he prints every week more copies of it than Horace Greeley printed of the *New York Tribune* in a year. He does not concern himself greatly about the formation of public opinion, which used to be the sole function of the journalist. But he does claim to give his readers more news at a glance than any of his contemporaries. Success explains itself, and the success of Mr. Harmsworth is undeniable and extraordinary.

He is yet only thirty-five years old, and he looks younger. He is the originator and publisher of the largest publishing business in the world. He owns five daily newspapers and twenty-eight other periodicals made for the English masses. He began thirteen years ago with a few pounds earned contributing to the London press. To-day he is many times a millionaire. In fiction the thing would be incredible, but there's nothing intangible about the dividend of $1,125,000 which "Harmsworth Brothers, Limited" paid to its stockholders last year. Yet Mr. Harmsworth thinks that he has no more than crossed the threshold of his career. He has ideas, energy, and extraordinary business acumen. He even purposes to project the trust into journalism, and prophesies for the future a publication with daily editions in every great city, a paper which shall be in journalism what the Standard Oil Company is in petroleum. And why not? In the nature of the commodity news is more easily handled in great masses than oil.

Mr. Harmsworth discovered, when he was a mere boy, that the English papers were made for the classes. They were written by men of university training for professional gentlemen and society people. No one had thought of supplying reading for the masses until a commercial traveller who had grown tired of the *Times* conceived the idea of printing extracts from his wife's scrap-book and selling them at a penny. His success was instantaneous, and when the scraps were exhausted reading matter of the same character was bought. Young Harmsworth, who had just emerged from the office of the *Illustrated London News*, became a favorite contributor to the new venture. He noted the interest that its readers took in the commonplace information furnished by the new weekly, and he conceived the idea of another paper appealing to the same class, to be called *Answers to Correspondents*. This was to be a kind of *Notes and Queries*, full of entertaining facts and fictions about everything in general and prominent people in particular, all in the guise of replies to the curious. The venture was but partially successful, till its title was abbreviated to *Answers*, and the young editor inaugurated a variety of premium schemes which for novelty and shrewdness have never been excelled. There were trips to Paris, puzzles, guessing contests, and a variety of other diversions which, though familiar enough now, were new then. All these, together with the readable quality of the little paper and its low price, brought an

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immense circulation with correspondingly great profits. *Answers* was launched in June, 1888.

That was the beginning. Two years later the young editor began the publication of *Comic Cuts* and *Illustrated Chips*, which were sold at a half-penny each. In succession followed *Forget-Me-Not*, *The Funny Wonder*, *The Sunday Companion*, *The Pluck Library*, none costing more than a penny, and all edited on the same lines — scrappy paragraphs of information and humor, or entertaining fiction of a cheap kind. There are now eighteen more of these periodicals — comic, religious, juvenile, or describing fashions, cycling, etc., and they are all successful — abundantly successful. Nor did the extraordinary gains which rewarded these ventures persuade Mr. Harmsworth into trying either a high-class illustrated paper or a literary weekly. He attempted neither a *Spectator* nor a *Graphic*, but he has clung consistently to his first audience. True, there is *Harmsworth's Magazine*, sold at seven cents, which made a profit of $100,000 last year; but that is the most expensive of his literary undertakings. Into book publishing he declares it is impossible to induce him, but he is willing, given a new idea, to start any kind of a weekly. Almost any one who has a journalistic notion which the public might favor can find an attentive listener in Mr. Harmsworth.

All this brings us to his daily paper enterprises. He soon made up his mind that as good an opportunity existed for a daily paper as for weeklies. The average English daily was high over the heads of its largest possible audience. Why not make a paper for the same attentive population that absorbed millions of *Answers?* He bought the *London Evening News* for $125,000 and set out to convert it from a losing business to a profitable one. In three weeks he had "turned the corner," and since then its annual earnings have often been more than the first cost of the property. This was in 1896. Surely a man who had so frequently vindicated his judgment was justified in daring another and greater hazard. If a good afternoon paper, why not a great morning daily? For months before the appearance of the *London Daily Mail* some of Harmsworth's weeklies began to announce a new paper, a paper of a new sort, the news at a glance, compact in form, no waste of words. At one cent (a half-penny) the edition (250,000) of the first issue was sold — a tribute to the virtues of advertising. Since then the circulation has steadily increased until the British public consumes over a million copies a day, a record far ahead of all American rivalry.

Mr. Harmsworth, who is now on a visit to this country, has been spending some weeks in Florida, fishing for tarpon. He is an alert, eager personality. Intensely active, he is interested in anything, in everything, full of ideas, shrewdly observant, — in five minutes he explains himself. Talk with him about newspapers and you find that he is as familiar as an American journalist with the characteristics of all our great and little periodicals. He knows all about paper and presses; he studies them, thinks about them. He knows the journals of every country better perhaps than any other man living.

I asked about his system of choosing men to conduct the Harmsworth periodicals.

"We try to find the round man for the round hole. We do it, too. We get them young, crisp. The editors of each of our papers has an interest in its sales, not in the advertising, but in the number of copies sold. It is his interest to increase the circulation, and he is allowed to carry out his own ideas almost without restriction. We never dream of radical interference with him. Much broader latitude is given to an editor by us than is the rule in America."

"I take it that you don't accept the theory that editing is but one-third of literary production?"

"On the contrary," insisted Mr. Harmsworth, "editing is the most important function about a publication. Intelligent editing makes for large circulation, and you cannot have it without it. Everything is in the contents of the paper, in the arrangement, and the style of make-up. I don't underrate the importance of business direction, but if you furnish proper matter you will be certain of patronage and appreciation."

Mr. Harmsworth does not believe in blanket sheets, nor in big headlines, though both seem to have been enormously successful in the United States.

"There has not been a new idea in daily

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journalism in a decade," he declared. "The newspapers are all imitating one another. There is no good reason why the morning news should not be delivered, printed, and bound in magazine form."

Again he said, "You American newspaper men are too much interested in what you are doing at home. You don't study foreign publications. I make it a rule to read and study papers of all kinds and types, French, Spanish, German, and Italian, as well as English. You really are more conservative than we are."

The man who has outrun all publishing and editing precedents is a remarkable character. His success is not a thing that other men may imitate. Perhaps it is a thing that could not have been won at any previous time in England. It could not be won at all in the United States, — with publications of the kind that he has put forth in London. Yet, while Mr. Harmsworth was in New York, a man of wealth tried to persuade him to edit a daily paper in New York by cable from London. The New York man declared that he would supply the capital and pay Mr. Harmsworth a prodigious salary.

But such a success in publishing for the masses does suggest to every man of the craft the inquiry why it is that there are so few very great successes in periodical literature in the United States. The *Daily Mail* in London and *Le Petit Journal* in Paris have very much larger circulations than any daily paper in the United States. The American "yellow" journals do not seem to have learned the great secrets of immense circulations. They are flat failures beside these prodigious English and French newspapers.

A SHORT GUIDE TO NEW BOOKS

A Journey to Nature.

This is really a delightful book, by a new writer, J. P. Mowbray. It tells, in a word, how a stock-broker is ordered by his doctor to give up work and go to the country; how he becomes for the first time acquainted with Nature; and how a delicate romance finally comes into this sylvan existence. Its charm lies in the rare feeling for Nature, the mature and gentle yet keen philosophy, and the real distinction of style, which mark the author as a *rara avis* in these days of overproduction of books, — a man with something to say and the ability to say it. "J. P. M." (as the writer signed himself when the tale appeared serially in the New York *Evening Post*) promises to take a high place in our contemporary literature. (Doubleday, Page. $1.50 net.)

The Method of Evolution.

Professor H. W. Conn gives a lucid, well-ordered, and judicial account of the development of biological theory from Darwin to the present time. The general reader who wishes to make clear his conceptions and to know what have been and are the battle-grounds of the conflicting schools of evolutionists, can find no other volume equal to this. The problem of Varieties, Heredity, Weismannism, and Neo-Lamarckism are admirably discussed, and the lines of the present investigation indicated. A debt of gratitude is due the specialist who has so helpfully set forth the history of the most important movement of modern scientific thought. (Putnam. $2.00.)

Robert Orange.

John Oliver Hobbes gives us in this novel the sequel to "The School for Saints." It is a book to tease and tantalize the critical reader. Its characters seem less unreal than far-away; we never get to understand them. The incident is nothing. But the book has an extraordinary character of intellectuality. The mind of the author blazes about every detail in unwearied comment. There is much about politics, and Disraeli is introduced; but it is no more a political than a polemical or philosophical novel. It is the pure product of an acute, if feminine, intelligence, and will find audience fit, though few. (Stokes. $1.50.)

The Philippines: The War and the People.

Albert G. Robinson draws freely on his letters to the New York *Evening Post*, written in the Philippines from July, 1899, to February, 1900, in making up this book; but the whole is recast from the present standpoint. The first third of the book recounts the recent history of the Philippines; and the remainder gives the writer's impressions of the islands and the difficulties of the situation. Mr. Robinson writes cleverly and is a keen fault-finder; but his effect is mainly destructive, since mistakes and misrepresentations get most of his attention. His main theme is that things have been very badly muddled. Nevertheless, his conclusion is that the United States cannot rightly relinquish control. (McClure, Phillips. $1.50.)

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"With a view to fostering American literature and encouraging younger writers anxious for a hearing," Messrs. Harper & Brothers propose to issue every month during the current year "an American novel by an American author"; and this patriotic enterprise is initiated by a tale of contemporary Southern life, for which HENRY BURNHAM BOONE and KENNETH BROWN are responsible. The Virginia gentlemen of the story seem to be largely occupied with knocking down and hunting down offending negroes, racing horses, and evading their debts, while letting their farms and buildings go to the dogs. While the authors have made distinctly a readable story, and portions of the negro dialect are real and amusing, one cannot help being reminded by the quantity of expletives of Mr. Barrie's late declaration that the modern novelists all seem to be trying to see who can say "Damn!" the loudest. (Harper. $1.50.)

Eastover Court House.

WINSTON SPENCER CHURCHILL went to Bloemfontein, after the relief of Ladysmith, in time to observe the masterly strategy of Lord Roberts's advance from Bloemfontein to Johannesburg and Pretoria. He accompanied the flanking column which marched under that gallant and skilful officer, General Hamilton, and gathered his full share of adventure. Frequent sketch maps and the admirable text make clear the military operations. The original form of letters to the *Morning Post* has been kept; the crispness of personal impressions gives liveliness to what is nevertheless a valuable narrative of one of the most important movements of the Boer war. (Longmans. $1.50.)

Ian Hamilton's March.

In this volume Professor T. N. TOLLER writes a disproportioned and unsatisfactory sketch of the history of English speech. The bias of the Anglo-Saxon scholar and lexicographer appears in the fact that over two-thirds of the volume is given to the period before the Norman Conquest. Neither in its inner nor in its outer aspects is the later history of the language properly set forth. The treatment of the very important period from 1150 to 1400 is especially disappointing. For the student in the first stages the volume has its value, especially in its earlier parts; but in spite of its misleading title it is no book for one who seeks a comprehensive survey of the process by which our present language has been formed. (Macmillan.)

Outlines of the History of the English Language.

Dr. JAMES A. HENSHALL, an agent of the United States Fish Commission, beguiled the winter evenings spent at his station in Montana by writing this travesty on the "Quest of the Golden Fleece." His rhymed couplets run in gay defiance of the laws of rhythm, and a steady stream of puns, good and bad, pours unabashed between the high banks of a decorative margin, and around rocks of black-and-white initial designs, some of which are very clever. This mildly diverting but too protracted fooling offers amusement to those with a taste for slangy pseudo-poetics. (The Robert Clark Co. $2.00 net.)

Ye Gods and Little Fishes.

ALEXIS KRAUSSE writes a brief history of the relations between China and the European powers since direct commercial intercourse began. The result is a handy condensed recital of facts, with an extreme British bias. Downright misstatements are rare, but the violent partisanship of the author makes him an unsafe guide. Commendable is the appended bibliography of some of the best books on China, though it omits Williams's "Middle Kingdom." (Cassell.)

The Story of the Chinese Crisis.

WILLIAM E. SIMMONS was one of a party which crossed Nicaragua in April, 1891, following the line of the projected canal, and picking up information concerning the country. He writes entertainingly of what he saw in his short visit. Only one chapter is occupied with the canal proper, and the book is badly named, though the greater part of it bears more or less directly on the general subject. It is illustrated with reproductions of photographs. (Harper. $1.25.)

The Nicaragua Canal.

HERBERT A. GILES, Professor of Chinese in the University of Cambridge, contributes this volume to Mr. Gosse's series of Literature of the World. The method is purely descriptive, with liberal citations, and the work thus succeeds in giving in the moderate compass of 450 pages a very fair idea of the literary activity of the Chinese for a period of twenty-four centuries — from Confucius and the Five Classics, that is, to the present time. (Appleton. $1.50.)

A History of Chinese Literature.

Sketches, letters, and verses which were casually published in the Chicago *Daily News* and are heretofore unpublished in book form, fill these two volumes made uniform with the other Field books. No volumes of all the charming books that bear his name give such a glimpse into the heart of Eugene Field, the man, and his daily life. Indeed, much of the material is so far from being literature that there could be no other justification for preserving it. (Scribner. $2.50.)

Sharps and Flats.

This last bit of the collaboration of RICHARD HOVEY and BLISS CARMAN, though greatly inferior to any of the previous volumes, contains some very tuneful lyrics and a fraternity anniversary poem of Mr. Hovey's which is strikingly good. A number of *fin-de-siècle* verses show Mr. Carman at his worst. Rather the best bit of the book is the opening verse, "At the Cross-roads." (Small, Maynard. $1.25.)

Last Songs from Vagabondia.

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This Kentucky story by JOHN URI LLOYD is a rare example of disproportion in novel making, a book in which positive merits and elementary faults alternate rapidly. Mr. Lloyd has a fine grasp of Negro character and superstition. In fact, the characters of Old Cupe and of the young mountain lad, "Red Head," are the only ones in the book that grip the reader as real. The love story means to be dramatic, tragic, but is only ridiculous. But the Kentucky atmosphere is perfectly maintained, and the constructive faults are forgiven in the picture of small-town Kentucky life and darky superstition. Not a great book, nor even a good book, critically speaking, but of some general merit, considerable interest, and rather the best Negro of latter-day fiction. Its popularity has already been proved. (Dodd, Mead. $1.50.)

Stringtown on the Pike.

BARBARA YECHTON'S book is a chronicle of family life in a modest New York apartment, and is primarily for girls just entering upon grown-up responsibilities, and for folk who enjoy the soothing society of pleasant, refined contemporaries. The story is really a remarkable one, in some ways, however; its characters stand out with vividness, and it achieves the author's object very creditably. (Houghton, Mifflin. $1.50.)

Fortune's Boats.

PIERRE LEROY BEAULIEU published in French last April this work on Siberia, Japan, and China, as important as it was timely. It is a mine of well-digested information concerning political, social, and economic conditions in eastern Asia, and is easily the best book obtainable for the general reader. The translation, however, unfortunately lacks both accuracy and literary style, and has condensed some parts of the original. (McClure, Phillips. $1.50.)

The Awakening of the East.

Readable historical romances are too plentiful to make this tale of Henry of Navarre seem at all extraordinary, though it is above the average. It has its full share of sword-play and adventure, and may well beguile an hour or two. (Doubleday, Page. $1.50.)

A King's Pawn.

MORLEY ROBERTS'S modern novel of love and English politics, turning upon a scruple of conscience and social convention, is told with sufficient cleverness to be readable, but it is not in any way an extraordinary book in interest or merit. (Harper. $1.50.)

Lord Linlithgow.

Part II. of this sumptuous publication exhibits the merits and defects of the initial Part. It is an invaluable manual for those interested in antique furniture, though apparently produced without that profuse expenditure of time which alone can insure against errors. This second instalment of the work deals with the pieces in use at the South between 1700 and 1776 — the period when mahogany was acquiring its strong hold upon popular favor. (Doubleday, Page. To be in eight parts, $2.00 each.)

The Furniture of our Forefathers.

EDWARD NOBLE, an American journalist who has resided much in Russia, writes of that country and its institutions with considerable authority and from a full experience. It is the best short book on the subject with which it deals. (Houghton, Mifflin. $1.50.)

Russia and the Russians.

HENRY GEORGE'S strenuous pen was often employed in depicting the mistakes and injustices which he saw in our land policy. This volume contains his most forceful writings on the subject, with a frontispiece map (showing the railroad holdings of land in California to be about three-fourths of the entire state, exclusive of cities, deserts, and mountains), which first turned his attention to the question of national land grants. (Doubleday, Page. $2.50.)

Our Land and Land Policy.

In this volume Mr. IRA N. HOLLIS writes the history of the American navy from its organization under Adams down to the close of the Mexican War, with especial reference to the career and achievements of the frigate *Constitution*. The book is the result of careful research and personal knowledge, and is written with a live interest in our naval achievements. (Houghton, Mifflin. $1.50.)

The "Constitution," and the Navy under Steam.

Mr. RICHARD MANSFIELD'S stage performance of "King Henry V." has resulted in an attractive volume containing the acting version of this stirring chronicle. The famous actor contributes an interesting introduction, in which he states his reasons for producing the play, and gives a shrewd analysis of the character of the martial Prince, whom he considers to have been generally underrated in the matters of sentiment, finesse, and feeling. (McClure, Phillips. 50 cents net.)

King Henry V.

CLEMENT SCOTT has written what he has well called "an appreciation" of the great English actress. In it may be caught a glimpse of the heart of the woman as well as of the art of the actress. It is a "newspapery" book in style, yet Miss Terry is so charming that even an inadequate account of her is not to be ignored. (Stokes. $1.25.)

Ellen Terry.

EDWARD A. DITHMAR, in a volume uniform with Mr. Scott's, writes a clever short biography of John Drew. Few American play folk make as good a subject for such a sketch in point of family, training, manhood, and art as Mr. Drew; but while this account is interesting, it suffers from the inevitable tendency to "overwrite" presented by a subject which is entertaining but not at all great. (Stokes. $1.25.)

John Drew.

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THE MONTH'S MOST POPULAR BOOKS

REPORTS have been received from book-dealers in New York, Philadelphia (2), Louisville, St. Paul, Indianapolis, San Francisco, Los Angeles, Cleveland, and Pittsburg, and from librarians in Springfield, Detroit, Chicago, Hartford, Minneapolis, Buffalo, Cincinnati, Brooklyn, New York, Atlanta, Cleveland, Jersey City, San Francisco, and Los Angeles. From these have been made the following composite lists: —

BOOK-DEALERS' REPORTS

1. Eben Holden — Bacheller. (Lothrop.)
2. Eleanor — Ward. (Harper.)
3. Alice of Old Vincennes — Thompson. (Bowen-Merrill.)
4. In the Palace of the King — Crawford. (Macmillan.)
5. Monsieur Beaucaire — Tarkington. (McClure, Phillips.)
6. The Life and Death of Richard Yea-and-Nay — Hewlett. (Macmillan.)
7. Napoleon, the Last Phase — Rosebery. (Harper.)
8. Master Christian — Corelli. (Dodd, Mead.)
9. The Cardinal's Snuff Box — Harland. (Lane.)
10. Literary Friends and Acquaintance — Howells. (Harper.)
11. Stringtown on the Pike — Lloyd. (Dodd, Mead.)
12. The Mantle of Elijah — Zangwill. (Harper.)
13. Rostand's L'Aiglon — Parker. (Russell.)
14. Tommy and Grizel — Barrie. (Scribner.)
15. An Englishwoman's Love Letters — Anon. (Doubleday, Page.)
16. More Fables in Slang — Ade. (Stone.)
17. Elizabeth and her German Garden — Anon. (Macmillan.)
18. The Old Gentleman of the Black Stock — Page. (Scribner.)
19. Bob, Son of Battle — Ollivant. (Doubleday, Page.)
20. Crittenden — Fox. (Scribner.)
21. L'Aiglon, par Rostand. (Brentano.)
22. The Life of Phillips Brooks — Allen. (Dutton.)
23. Home Folks — Riley. (Bowen-Merrill.)
24. Wanted, a Matchmaker — Ford. (Dodd, Mead.)
25. The Lane that Had No Turning — Parker. (Doubleday, Page.)
26. The Solitary Summer — Anon. (Macmillan.)
27. The Redemption of David Corson — Goss. (Bowen-Merrill.)
28. When Knighthood Was in Flower — Major. (Bowen-Merrill.)
29. Herod — Phillips. (Lane.)
30. The Reign of Law — Allen. (Macmillan.)

LIBRARIANS' REPORTS

1. Eben Holden — Bacheller. (Lothrop.)
2. Alice of Old Vincennes — Thompson. (Bowen-Merrill.)
3. Eleanor — Ward. (Harper.)
4. In the Palace of the King — Crawford. (Macmillan.)
5. Master Christian — Corelli. (Dodd, Mead.)
6. Elizabeth and her German Garden — Anon. (Macmillan.)
7. The Reign of Law — Allen. (Macmillan.)
8. The Redemption of David Corson — Goss. (Bowen-Merrill.)
9. The Cardinal's Snuff Box — Harland. (Lane.)
10. Tommy and Grizel — Barrie. (Scribner.)
11. Rostand's L'Aiglon — Parker. (Russell.)
12. The Gentleman from Indiana — Tarkington. (Doubleday, Page.)
13. When Knighthood Was in Flower — Major. (Bowen-Merrill.)
14. Unleavened Bread — Grant. (Scribner.)
15. The Life and Death of Richard Yea-and-Nay — Hewlett. (Macmillan.)
16. Stringtown on the Pike — Lloyd. (Dodd, Mead.)
17. To Have and to Hold — Johnston. (Houghton, Mifflin.)
18. Quisanté — Hawkins. (Stokes.)
19. Sky Pilot — Connor. (Revell.)
20. A Woman Tenderfoot — Mrs. Seton-Thompson. (Doubleday, Page.)
21. The Maid of Maiden Lane — Barr. (Dodd, Mead.)
22. Wanted, a Matchmaker — Ford. (Dodd, Mead.)
23. Janice Meredith — Ford. (Dodd, Mead.)
24. David Harum — Westcott. (Appleton.)
25. Richard Carvel — Churchill. (Macmillan.)
26. Prisoners of Hope — Johnston. (Houghton, Mifflin.)
27. Stage-coach and Tavern Days — Earle. (Macmillan.)
28. Fisherman's Luck — Van Dyke. (Scribner.)
29. The Solitary Summer — Anon. (Macmillan.)
30. From India to the Planet Mars — Flournoy. (Harper.)

Sixteen books are mentioned in both lists. Six of these, "Eben Holden," "Alice of Old Vincennes," "Eleanor," "In the Palace of the King," "Master Christian," and "The Cardinal's Snuff Box," are among the first twelve in both lists. The four first named are the leading four books in both sets of reports — a remarkable coincidence. These are undoubtedly the most popular books of the month. And "Eben Holden," which last month led the dealers' list and was second in rank in the librarians' list, is *the* popular book, for in each list it is greatly in advance of any other book. There are seven volumes, not fiction, in the librarians' list, and eleven in the dealers' list.

"In the Palace of the King," "Napoleon, the Last Phase," "Literary Friends and Acquaintances," "Richard Yea-and-Nay," and "The Mantle of Elijah" have risen considerably in the dealers' list, and "In the Palace of the King," "L'Aiglon," and "Stringtown on the Pike," in the librarians' list, while "An Englishwoman's Love Letters," of the new books, takes a high place in sales.

In connection with the talk about the commercial value of the dramatized novel, it is interesting to notice that of the nineteen books of fiction in the dealers' list only two are on the stage, "In the Palace of the King" and "When Knighthood Was in Flower," and of the twenty-three in the librarians' list only six, "In the Palace of the King," "When Knighthood Was in Flower," "Unleavened Bread," "Janice Meredith," "David Harum," and "Richard Carvel."

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Why Certain Foreign Loans are Placed in America

THE placing of the bulk of foreign government loans with corporate and individual investors in the United States, which began last year, promises to be repeated on a much larger scale during the current twelvemonth.

There is a very human and a very interesting phase to these purchases of foreign bonds which has thus far escaped general attention. It was first manifested a year or so ago, when, one of the cantons of Switzerland being desirous of floating a loan of moderate size, it was intimated to the canton authorities from a friendly quarter that many of the Swiss settled in America had prospered greatly in their new home, and would be glad to invest some part of their savings in the bonds of the Fatherland. This hint was promptly acted upon, and, as had been predicted, the entire issue was subscribed for by Swiss-Americans. In like manner nearly if not all of the more recent and more considerable Swedish loan was taken by the well-to-do Swedes of the Northwest, while, since the opening of the new year the kingdom of Bavaria floated a loan of twenty-five millions through its financial agents in New York, almost all of the subscriptions to it, which were entered within twenty-four hours, representing the desire of the sons of Bavaria to invest their savings in the obligations of that country. The kingdom of Saxony, also, during the past few weeks has successfully placed a ten-million loan, the greater part of which was largely subscribed for by men of Saxon birth now resident in the United States; and bankers who have kept a watchful eye on these several transactions express the belief that many millions of similar obligations will find a ready market in this country within the next few years, since it is now clear that the Fatherlands possess not only a sentimental interest, but one strong enough to impel the American citizen of foreign descent or birth to share the prosperity that has come to him in his New World home with his own Fatherland.

Permanent investment, however, in loans like those to England and Germany is made chiefly by the great life insurance corporations, whose resources and yearly revenues tell a story of wealth-growth without parallel in financial history. The reports for the last calendar year of three of these corporations having headquarters in New York show that they have outstanding nearly three and a half billions of insurance, and that they possess in the aggregate not far from one billion of assets. Resources such as these give them enormous power and prestige, and, in some respects, greater authority than the associated banks of New York. Their strength and influence tend steadily to increase, such is the impelling force involved in the creation and maintenance of a billion-dollar corporation; and the day is not far distant, if it has not already arrived, when a loan issued by an English king or a Russian czar will be underwritten *en bloc* by the president of an American life insurance company.

It is also worthy of note that to these insurance corporations is largely due the unique and masterful position which Mr. J. Pierpont Morgan holds in the financial and industrial worlds. That gentleman possesses the qualities of successful leadership; but had he not been able to count at all times upon the aid and coöperation of the men who control the finances of the greater insurance companies, many of the brilliant feats in reorganization and consolidation now standing to his credit would have been impossible of achievement.

The Oil Fields of California and Texas

CALIFORNIA, which has undergone many industrial transformations during the fifty years it has been a part of the Union, now promises to become an important oil-producing state. Experts give the California oil belt a length of six hundred and a breadth of seventy miles, while last year's production exceeded three million barrels. This output has been found to be especially suited for fuel purposes, and railroads which tap the oil belt are now using it in preference to coal, as are also electric steel car lines and electric power plants. Consumers declare it to be cheaper and cleaner than coal, while supplies can be obtained with rapidity and ease. Improved storage facilities

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and longer lines of pipe distribution, both of which are now under way, assure a rapid and steady development of an industry which cannot fail to exert a revolutionary influence upon the manufacturing interests of the Pacific coast.

Texas, however, is the most sensational and formidable newcomer among the oil-producing states. The Corsicana district has been producing a moderate amount of oil for several years past, but interest in its future has been pushed aside by the developments at Beaumont, where the recently drilled Lucas well is daily producing fifteen thousand barrels of oil, an output far greater than that of any well previously sunk in the United States, and also exceeding by several thousand barrels the output of the largest gushers of the Baku field in Russia. For days after the producing sand was reached, a solid six-inch stream of oil shot straight into the air to a height of over two hundred feet, forming, before adequate arrangements could be made for its storage, a lake several acres in extent and many feet in depth.

A score of companies have already been formed to drill other wells in the neighborhood, and fabulous prices asked and paid for lands regarded as almost worthless before the completion of the Lucas well. Upward of two hundred wells are now being sunk. These extend southward from Beaumont to Sabine Pass, and eastward to Orange, near the Louisiana border, and should they confirm the promise of the Lucas well, southeastern Texas will be speedily transformed into a region the like of which can now be found only on the shores of the Caspian. Beaumont, moreover, lies close to tide-water, whence it would be an easy and economical task to lay pipe lines, and this fact will give the producers of the new district a decided advantage over Eastern competitors, while it may work important changes both in the price of oil and in the conduct of the refining trade.

It is an interesting and suggestive fact that the principal owner of the Lucas well is a man who has been identified with the oil industry practically from its birth forty odd years ago in western Pennsylvania. He is James M. Guffey, of Pittsburg, whose alert and masterful personality would have compelled success in almost any calling. He was a schoolboy just out of his teens when he made his first venture at Pithole, a city which once had a population of thirty thousand, but whose former site is now a cow pasture. He lost the money he had taken with him to Pithole, nor did a larger measure of success attend his operations during the next few years. Time and again he found himself without money and burdened with debt; but after each failure he took fresh courage, and for a decade or more roamed the hills and valleys of western Pennsylvania pushing the drill in out-of the-way places with an energy that seemed a great deal like lunacy to less persistent men.

Guffey's opportunity came with the discovery of the Cherry Grove district. He was one of the first in that field, and secured leases which yielded him a comfortable fortune. His part in the development of every important oil and gas field discovered since Cherry Grove's decline has been often a leading and always a profitable one, so that he now owns oil and gas wells in half a dozen states, and for several years past has been the largest individual oil producer in the world. The story of how he secured a controlling interest in the Lucas well is a typical example of the unbroken success which has attended his later operations. One day last summer there was a letter in his mail from a man in Texas in which the writer stated that he had fifteen thousand acres of land in Jefferson county, that state, under oil leases. He would like Guffey to join him in drilling a test well. Guffey wrote the Texan to get leases on thirty thousand acres, when he would help him. The bargain was made, and its first fruit was the Lucas well, which has already produced oil worth $400,000.

The American Engineer in India

JOHN C. TURK, an engineer in the employ of the Pennsylvania Steel Company, has lately returned from India, where he successfully accomplished a brilliant and unusual engineering feat. Two years ago the British government invited proposals for the building of a railway viaduct across the Gotkeik gorge, a deep rift in the Shan Hills of Burmah, eighty miles east of Mandalay. When these proposals were opened, it was found that Mr. Turk's company stood ready to do the work in briefer time and for less money than any of the English bidders, and it was accordingly awarded the contract. The steel for the proposed viaduct was forged and shaped in Steelton, and then shipped to Rangoon, by way of New York, whence it was transported one hundred and fifty miles inland to the intended site.

With the first consignment of material went a gang of picked workmen, with Mr. Turk at their head, and a giant travelling crane capable of lifting a girder weighing twenty-five tons. The erection of the viaduct was begun on the first day of December, 1899, and with this crane, especially designed for the task in hand, the towers of the viaduct were put in place, the colossal steel traveller, as fast as one span was completed, being pushed along to the next, and with its overhang of one hundred and sixty-four feet, picking up from the ground below the parts needed for another section of the work. Floods, a faulty transport service, and a capricious

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climate greatly hampered operations at the outset, but American ingenuity proved superior to all obstacles, and October 16 of last year saw the last part in place, with nearly two months to spare, and without any loss of life or serious accident.

The Gotkeik viaduct, as finally completed and turned over to the British government, is one of the highest in use on any railroad, its greatest distance from the ground being 320 feet and its length 2260 feet. The only similar structure closely approaching it in these respects is the Kinzua viaduct in Pennsylvania, which has just been rebuilt on lines which serve to emphasize the great advancement that has been made in the traffic requirements of the American railroad during the past twenty years. When the old Kinzua viaduct was opened for traffic, in 1882, it was equal to the burden of the heaviest locomotives and freight cars then in use. But, where the average freight locomotive of that period weighed a hundred thousand pounds and hauled cars rarely exceeding sixty thousand pounds' capacity, present conditions demand that cars of a hundred thousand pounds' capacity shall be run in trains hauled by locomotives weighing one hundred and ninety thousand pounds. It was this increase in the weights of trains which made necessary the rebuilding of the viaduct. The new structure, like the old, has a maximum height of 301 feet, and its total length is 2053 feet; its carrying capacity is double that of its predecessor. How long it will meet the requirements for which it is intended is an interesting problem.

An Engineering Feat

ENGINEER TURK and his associates in returning from India passed on the way another band of American workmen bound for that country to begin one of the most important electrical undertakings of the period. An unusual and significant story lies behind this second invasion of the East. A year ago Captain de Lotbinniere, an officer of the British Royal Engineers, was despatched by his government to inspect and report upon the practicability of mining the gold deposits of the Kolar district in Southern India. The ore produced there is of low grade, but the cyanide process has made it valuable, and the mining experts who inspected the Kolar deposits reported that they could be made to yield from twenty to thirty million dollars of gold every year, although Captain de Lotbinniere's conclusion, after careful study of the attendant conditions, was that the only method of operation that held out an assurance of profit was machinery driven by compressed air. This method, however, required that power should be found by which compressed air could be applied to machinery that could be driven in the mine. Climatic and other reasons forbade the use of steam power, but ninety miles away at Mysore were the great falls of the Cauvery River, and Captain de Lotbinniere, recalling the precedent for electrical engineers established at Niagara Falls, whence an electric current is carried to Buffalo, addressed himself to the problem of generating electric power at the riverside and transmitting it to the mines.

The Madras government, in which the Kolar district is located, approved the captain's plans, and gave him full authority to put them into execution. Here his real labors began. The various electrical concerns of England, to whom he first applied, declined to undertake the construction of a plant capable of operating compressed-air apparatus in gold mines ninety miles removed from the source of power. French and Belgian engineers were equally reluctant to essay the task, and those of Germany asked for time in which to make experiments. So in the end the captain was compelled to carry his quest to this country. The engineers of the electrical corporation before whom he laid his proposition invited the coöperation of a well-known manufacturer of compressed-air machinery, and the result of their joint labors was a speedy and satisfactory solution of the problem of carrying and conserving energy over a distance of nearly a hundred miles. The million dollars' worth of apparatus contracted for by Captain de Lotbinniere before he sailed for home is now on the way to India and will be put in place during the next few months. Only the mines will be supplied at the outset by the new apparatus, the distinctive feature of which is the employment of overhead wires at a high voltage, but in the not remote future — the strength which the falls are capable of generating during the rainy season of ten months being enormous — important manufacturing enterprises, now preparing to locate in the neighborhood, will avail themselves of the practically unlimited power the plant will produce. The excavating machinery with which the mines will be operated will also bear an American imprint, and will, along with the electrical plant, be operated by American engineers.

The harnessing of the Cauvery falls, by demonstrating that it is commercially practicable to convey great electric energy for long distances, opens a world-wide field for the economical use of water power for manufacturing purposes. It also furnishes fresh proof of the ability of American manufacturers to meet and master new conditions, and shows why our engineers have come in recent years to command larger returns for their services than are within the reach of the members of any other profession. Good authority has it that Henry F. Porshall, the American director of some of the great electrical

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enterprises now under way in London, has for some years past received annual professional fees amounting to $150,000, and the success of other of our native engineers has been hardly less marked in a monetary way.

Mr. Carnegie's Remarkable Railroad

THE Carnegie railroad, as it is popularly called, connecting Bessemer, Pa., with Conneaut Harbor on Lake Erie, is in some respects the most interesting stretch of track now in operation on the continent. It is laid with steel rails weighing a hundred pounds to the yard, and it uses 120-ton engines and steel hopper bottom cars, each of a hundred thousand pounds' capacity, conditions which enable it to haul the highest average paying train-load of any road in the world. The Carnegie railroad, however, up to the present time has been used almost exclusively for carrying ore from the lake to Pittsburg, the cars returning empty to the lake. It has been determined by the Carnegie company, in order to utilize this now profitless haul, to establish at the lake terminal of the road, where it already owns great docks and has ample facilities for handling ore and for the lake shipment of the finished product, an extensive pipe and tube manufacturing plant representing an investment of $12,000,000. The projected works will stretch over a mile along the lake front, and will be the most extensive and complete plant of the kind in existence. Electric power will be mainly employed for driving the machinery, and the system of operation will be continuous, the ore being unloaded from vessels at one end and worked through successive stages of iron and steel making in a direct line to the finished pipe and tubing at the other end.

When the Conneaut plant is completed and in operation, the Carnegie railroad, which now returns hundreds of empty cars daily to the lake, will have a back haul of coal and coke, the transportation of which will virtually cost nothing. So much of the company's ore brought down by ship from the mines as is needed for the Conneaut plant will be turned into steel at that point, and the products made of it will be on the shore of the lake, ready for shipment by the canal routes of this country and Canada to the seaboard. The cost of coal and coke carriage will be almost nothing, while that of carrying a great deal of the ore the company consumes will be eliminated because it will be kept at the lake instead of forwarded to Pittsburg.

The advantage this arrangement will give the Carnegie company over its rivals is evident, and already steps have been taken to meet the new competition, one of these being the organization of a company to build a railroad from Pittsburg to Willoughby, twenty-five miles east of Cleveland, where a harbor will be made and large storage facilities erected for ore and coal. This new phase of competition is regarded by the well informed as having but one of two meanings, — either a destructive trade war, made all the more costly by reason of the magnitude of the forces engaged, or a more intimate community of purpose and interest than has hitherto existed among the steel makers. The latter is the more probable outcome.

A Quickly Made Fortune in Copper

ONE of the indirect results of Dr. Michael Pupin's recently perfected device for the more effective insulation of electric wires will be an increase in the demand for copper, a fact of moment to the producers of that metal, who have lately reported the most prosperous year in their history. Indeed, so constant and rapid has been the development of new uses for copper during the last decade that it has produced nothing less than a revolution in the trade, and nowhere has this change been more perceptible than in the United States, which now produces more than one-half the world's copper supply.

The success of young Mr. "Fritz" Heinze, of Butte, Mont., holds a place apart, and furnishes signal proof of the splendid opportunities still open in this country to men of insight and adequate technical equipment. Mr. Heinze, who is now a commanding figure in copper-mining affairs, is the son of a well-to-do New York merchant, and was graduated at Columbia, later taking a supplementary course at one of the German universities. When he returned from abroad a dozen years ago, he took up his residence in Butte, where he was quick to recognize the vast possibilities of that region.

Veteran miners made light of the newcomer and his ambitions, declaring that he would not be able to hold his own against men who had had more practical experience. But they reckoned without their host, for Heinze brought to his mining ventures engineering talent of the first order and to his metallurgical work the latest knowledge of the schools. When the price of copper was low he was able to work his mines at a profit, and when a rise came he bought more claims, and enlarged his reduction works. None of his ventures has failed to yield manifold returns. The Rarus mine, purchased in 1895 for $400,000, he has developed into one of the great producing properties of the Butte camp, with an estimated value of $15,000,000. The Nipper mine, a controlling interest in which was bought on a basis of $150,000 for the whole property, now yields a daily profit of $6000, and Heinze also owns a half-interest in another great mine in Butte, called the Snohomish. Besides his

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Montana mines and his great reduction works in that state, Heinze owns half a million acres of mineral lands in British Columbia, and rich holdings in Arizona. He was among the first to realize the vast mineral possibilities of, and to build railroads and smelters in, the great western province of Canada, while he has done as much as any other man to seek out and develop the mineral resources of Arizona, which is fast becoming one of the great copper-producing districts of the world.

Heinze's success has not been due to luck, but to energy and trained capacity. While it furnishes the most striking recent example of quickly won wealth, it is an interesting fact that most of the great mining fortunes of the last quarter century have come not from gold and silver, but from copper. The story of the St. Lawrence and Anaconda mines is proof of this statement. Twenty odd years ago the late Marcus Daly, then little more than a penniless prospector, got a bond on the Anaconda for a few thousand dollars, and induced some of his mining acquaintances to furnish the money to pay for and develop it. Daly, in those days a jolly, popular, and warm-hearted Irishman, numbered among his friends Charley Larrabee, who owned the St. Lawrence mine. Larrabee through friendship gave Daly an interest in his claim, but the latter thought so little of the gift, that he did not pay the small sum assessed him for development work, and Larrabee paid it for him. Later Daly bought Larrabee's share in the St. Lawrence for $100,000, and since that time tens of millions of dollars' worth of copper have been extracted from it.

Making Steel wholly by Machinery

THE most efficient steel mill in the world is that at Ensley, Ala. There are larger ones in the North, but none which uses such remarkably modern methods in all the processes of production. Every step is automatic, from the time a miner picks up a piece of coal in the mines and places it in his barrow; it is not touched by human hands until it is ready to be packed and shipped as finished product. Meantime it has undergone all the various operations of the furnace and mill.

The building in which the steel furnaces are located is 80 by 736 feet. It contains ten basic, open-hearth furnaces, gas heated, each of fifty tons' capacity and having a stack 150 feet high. The material is charged into the furnaces by two charging machines. The charging boxes, each holding two tons, are run up to the doors of the furnaces on cars carrying four boxes each, and the machine takes one of these boxes, thrusts it into the furnace, inverts it, and then places it back on the car. The machine and cars are operated by electricity, and controlled by the mere touching of a button.

The casting side of the mill is at a lower level. When the mass of molten metal has reached the desired condition, the whole furnace is tilted, and the fiery fluid poured off into wheeled ladles, which roll up on tracks under the lips of the furnace to receive the spitting and sputtering cascade of fire. The metal is then moulded into ingots, and subsequently rolled into billets. The blooming mill, where the latter operation is accomplished, is forty-four inches in diameter, and the largest but one in the country. The shears then receive the metal; they can cut a piece ten inches thick and thirty inches wide.

The coke used in the iron furnaces is made in the most approved manner. Coal straight from the mines is passed through a $600,000 plant, which saves all the volatile portion. The tar and ammonia are washed from the smoke. The latter is crystallized into sulphate of ammonia, and the tar is made into pitch and creosote. The gas from these furnaces is then conducted to the blast furnaces, where, in the process of iron making, it is forced through the molten metal. Even then it is not allowed to escape; it is made to do service in heating boilers for generating power. Each ton of coal thus treated yields 10,000 cubic feet of gas, 20 pounds of ammonia, and 100 pounds of tar. The ammonia is used for refrigeration and fertilization; the tar is taken by a roofing concern which has a plant near by. Another industry allied to the steel and iron plant is the one which utilizes the slag refuse from the furnaces in the manufacture of cement.

This concern was one of the first to increase its force after the Presidential election. Its full capacity will be fifteen hundred tons. The Alabama Steel and Iron Works adjoin it; these, when in full operation, will take a large part of the product of the mill. With a capacity of five hundred tons, these works will be the largest of their kind in the country. Iron has long been manufactured at Ensley, but the making of steel is a new development, and a very important one to the South, where its success will establish a vast new industry.

Many of the improvements which have been introduced in this model plant were put in as experiments. Their operation has been watched by other concerns, and they are likely to be introduced soon in other places, for the iron and steel trade is now in most satisfactory condition, and everywhere active. None of the numerous big iron furnaces, idle two months ago, will long remain out of blast, for the present heavy demand for new material must soon exhaust the stock on hand. Wherever plants are in process of construction or alteration, the object lesson of the Ensley Mills will yield their benefit.

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Advertising and Our Export Trade

AN interesting phase of our export trade is the rapid increase in the sale of machinery protected by patents, and of goods upon which protection is offered by trade-mark laws; and it is made all the more interesting because it is this class of goods which in large measure sustains our factories, thus furnishing employment to skilled labor, which in turn supports an immense home market for all classes of supplies.

Much of this increase is due to skilful advertising. American manufacturers of what are known as "specialties" have in recent years closely studied foreign countries to discover foreign markets for their wares, and when they have found conditions favorable, they have, after securing the necessary protection of the patent and trade-mark laws, promptly entered the new field, or essayed to educate an indifferent public to a new desire or necessity. Advertising has been the key which, in either case, has unlocked the door of prejudice or indifference; and the publicity attached to this process has not only secured the coveted market for the article advertised, but has also helped to create a market for other American goods.

"Thus," said Paul E. Derrick, the well-known advertising expert, "every article of merit which America sends to foreign markets and properly and systematically advertises, makes it easier for each succeeding effort. If people eat our cereals and find them superior, they can be induced more easily to try our soaps, shoes, watches, and furniture, and just so long as we continue to send superior goods to that market, will our exporters to that market find public opinion and individual judgment more and more inclined to American products. In other words, every American advertising success abroad stimulates a wider range of exports, and makes the way smoother and easier for every one concerned. The most potent force operating to extend our foreign trade is best expressed in the word — Advertising."

The Cramps and Sir Hiram Maxim

THE finishing touches have been given to the negotiations which will make the Cramp yard in Philadelphia the most complete shipbuilding plant in America, able to produce and assemble every part of a fully equipped man-of-war. The chief point in these negotiations is that Vickers and Maxim, the British gunmakers, make an absolute sale of their plant and patents for $5,000,000 in the shares of the new Cramp company. Thus, in a manner that must be peculiarly gratifying to him, Hiram Maxim, after long residence abroad, becomes intimately identified with one of the great industrial enterprises of his native country.

Maxim's exceptional career confirms the old saying that a prophet is without honor in his own land. He was born in the state of Maine a little more than sixty years ago, and left there when a lad with the proverbial shilling in his pocket. He earned his first money by decorative painting, but soon gave his whole attention to mechanics. The idea of the famous gun which bears his name, the basic principle of which is the utilization for reloading of the recoil produced by the explosion, came to him shortly after the close of the Civil War. He made the experiment, when visiting one of the Southern battlefields, of firing at a target with a Springfield musket. He proved himself a good shot, but found to his surprise that his shoulder was black and blue from the recoil. This taught him the existence of a force which could be used for automatic firing.

But after he had worked out his idea the ordnance wiseacres at Washington would have none of it, and when he made his way to England he found that John Bull was also slow and prejudiced against any new idea. No one in London would make his gun for him, while the manager of the Birmingham Small Arms Company bluntly refused to undertake the task. "What difference does it make to you if I pay you for the work you do?" asked Maxim. "It makes no difference," was the reply, "but I will not assist you in any such foolishness." A man was found after further searching who agreed to undertake the work, but he said that it would require many months to do it. Whereupon the American packed his bag and started for Paris. A fortnight later the model was finished, and after protracted experiments with it the designer succeeded in producing the original Maxim gun. An interview with Maxim, by William G. Stead, published in the *Pall Mall Gazette* shortly after the battle of Abou Klea, led to a general pilgrimage to the Maxim workshop, and from that time his career has been one of almost unbroken triumph. The Maxim gun is now in use in nearly every army of the world.

Sir Hiram, as he now has the right to be called, for one of Queen Victoria's last official acts was to grant him the honor of knighthood, is a many-sided man, whose interests cover an extraordinary range. He narrowly anticipated Edison in the invention of the incandescent light, and his experiments in aerial navigation now command the earnest and respectful attention of scientists. He is also an excellent man of business, of which and of his strong regard for his native country he gave unusual proof during the Spanish-American War. "When I saw that a conflict was inevitable," said he to the writer during his last visit to New York, "I sought and received by cable authority from

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Washington to buy up all the war munitions to be had in Europe. Agents of our firm scoured the markets for everything in sight worth having, and, by keeping the wires hot, in a few days we had secured every gun that the owners were willing to release to another country. Indeed, such were the celerity and magnitude of our purchases that though the Washington government remitted money to us in a steady stream, we had at one time expended half a million dollars in excess of what had been paid us on account. Meantime, a representative of the Madrid government had been sent to London post-haste with orders to purchase arms wherever he could find them, but in every quarter he was informed that all available supplies had already been sold to the United States through us. However, it was only by employing every resource at our command that we were able to keep ahead in the great race by hours and not days. In the short space of a week we expended in telegraph tolls alone the sum of $10,000."

Reclaiming Arid and Swamp Lands

THE opening of a tract of land sixty miles square in Oklahoma, which will occur sometime during the coming summer, will be attended by the last great struggle for free homes in America; for, while the government still owns many millions of lands available for settlement under the homestead act, practically all the remaining public domain must be subjected to irrigation or drainage before it will yield a profitable return to the cultivators. This final exhaustion of the lands to be had for the asking, and for which a man had but to put forth a claim in order to assure himself a comfortable livelihood during the balance of his days, lends new urgency and importance to the subject of irrigation, and a score of plans to reclaim arid lands, of varying magnitude and merit, are now seeking favorable recognition from Congress. Though it is doubtful if the present Congress will vote money for the furtherance of any of these schemes, their advocates are doing an excellent work in preparing public opinion for the adoption, at no distant day, of the principle of the reclamation of arid land by the general government.

Meantime, and without waiting for aid from Washington, an extensive scheme of irrigation has been undertaken in Kansas, which presents some unusual features, and which, if successful, will, by giving them the benefit of a large supply of water, make several counties in the central part of that state practically independent of the rainfall. The Cheyenne Bottoms in Barton County, level as a floor and girt by a rim of uplands, mark the location of a prehistoric lake thirteen miles long and from three to eight miles wide. This basin has been connected by means of a huge ditch with the Arkansas River, ten miles away. The Arkansas during ten months of the year is a river in name only, but the other two months it is a raging torrent half a mile in width. This season of flood is to be utilized to store the Cheyenne Bottoms with water, and there will be ditches radiating from the artificial lake thus created sufficient to irrigate all of Barton County and some of the surrounding lands. It is hoped in this way to release from the threat of uncertain rainfall one of the richest sections of Kansas. The only element of uncertainty in the venture is fear as to whether the water will stay in the lake until it is needed for use. Should this fear prove to be unfounded, the basins of other prehistoric lakes, of which there are a number on the Kansas plains, will be utilized for like purpose, and a cheap and adequate storage system provided for thousands of farmers.

Widely different in character, but having the same end in view, is the system of canals lately set afoot in the Atchafalaya region, Louisiana, by which it is hoped to reclaim nearly a million acres of exceptionally fertile land. The district concerned in the present plan, bounded on every side by rivers and bayous, forms a part of the swamp lands given to the state of Louisiana by the general government half a century ago. All or nearly all of it lies below the high-water level of the streams which surround it, and is therefore subject to periodical overflow. The district levee board in whose jurisdiction it lies proposes by the construction of a comprehensive system of canals, dams, and pumping stations to drain the land and render it available for agriculture. Active operations are now in progress, and, should they serve their purpose, will, without doubt, be duplicated by the other levee boards of Louisiana, thus assuring the ultimate reclamation of some millions of acres of overflowed alluvial land worth from $50 to $100 an acre.

The alluvial lands of the Mississippi closely resemble those of the Nile, and, under favoring conditions, can be made to yield as manifold returns to those who till them. All that is needed is to free them from the danger of overflow, and if this can be assured, a princely contribution will have been made to the wealth-producing forces, and a great impulse for growth of the states in which they lie.

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MR. ANDREW CARNEGIE.

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THE WORLD'S WORK

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The March of Events

THE particular activity that has distinguished the month has been the unprecedented combinations of great financial and industrial interests — combinations of such magnitude as had hitherto hardly been dreamed of. The first effect on the public mind has been to excite the imagination rather than fear or violent criticism. No new principle has been introduced. The consolidation of great trust companies and banks, of steel plants and of railroad systems, in a "community of interest" differs from previous consolidations not in kind, but only in magnitude. The movement does mean the concentration of greater power in the hands of small groups of men than hitherto; and this augmentation of group-power is the only new phenomenon.

Endless speculation might be indulged in about such a tendency. But the fact that stands out more plainly than any other is the confidence that the investing public shows in these groups of men. Most of the recent consolidations are regarded as insurers of stable conditions. Moreover, the organizers use comparatively little cash of their own. The properties remain in the ownership of as large a number of shareholders as before. But the control of great interests does continue to converge into fewer and fewer hands.

THE NEW NOTE IN OUR NATIONAL LIFE

THE second inauguration of President McKinley struck a new note in our history and struck it clearly. The body of Porto Rican troops in the procession were a visible reminder of our new relations and responsibilities; and the President, in his brief and clear address, put our two gravest problems in proper proportion and relation when he said:—

"The peace which we are pledged to leave to the Cuban people must carry with it the guarantees of permanence. We became sponsors for the pacification of the island, and we remain accountable to the Cubans, no less than to our own country and people, for the reconstruction of Cuba as a free commonwealth on abiding foundations of right, justice, liberty, and assured order. Our enfranchisement of the people will not be completed until free Cuba shall be a reality, not a name; a perfect entity, not a hasty experiment, bearing within itself the elements of failure."

And with regard to the Philippine Islands:—

"The settled purpose, long ago proclaimed, to afford the inhabitants of the island self-government as fast as they were ready for it, will be pursued with earnestness and fidelity. . . . Our countrymen should not be deceived. We are not waging war against the inhabitants of the Philippine Islands.

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A portion of them are making war against the United States. By far the greater part of the inhabitants recognize American sovereignty and welcome it as a guaranty of order and security for life, property, liberty, freedom of conscience, and the pursuit of happiness. To them full protection will be given. They shall not be abandoned. We will not leave the destiny of the loyal millions in the islands to the disloyal thousands who are in rebellion against the United States."

There is nothing evasive nor "imperialistic" in these declarations. More admirable declarations cannot be found in any presidential address in recent times. And about the whole duty that our trusteeship of the old Spanish colonies lays on us, he spoke with the same convincing clearness: —

"The American people, intrenched in freedom at home, take their love for it with them wherever they go, and they reject as mistaken and unworthy the doctrine that we lose our own liberties by securing the enduring foundations of liberty to others. Our institutions will not deteriorate by extension and our sense of justice will not abate under tropic suns in distant seas. As heretofore, so hereafter will the nation demonstrate its fitness to administer any new estate which events devolve upon it, and in the fear of God will 'take occasion by the hand and make the bounds of freedom wider yet.' If there are those among us who would make our way more difficult we must not be disheartened, but the more earnestly dedicate ourselves to the task upon which we have rightly entered."

The new note of a wider reach and range of national life was instantly noticed abroad. The London *Daily Telegraph* remarked: "President McKinley's speech rose to an exalted height. It may be summed up in three words: 'No looking back.'"

OUR DEMANDS ON CUBA

IT is hardly extravagant to say that the settlement of the Cuban question is the most important political matter that we have had in hand since the days of the reconstruction of the Southern States. Technically our relation to Cuba is different from our relation to Porto Rico and the Philippines; but, in the larger view, the problem presented by one differs only in the time of settlement from the problems presented by the others. If we successfully settle the Cuban question now, we shall be likely, when the time is ripe, to follow the precedent in our ultimate dealings with the other islands, especially if Cuban self-government succeeds.

The conditions of our withdrawal from Cuba were set forth by Congress in an amendment to the Army appropriation bill. The amendment was unanimously reported by the Senate Committee of which Senator Platt, of Connecticut, is chairman and of which Senator Teller, the author of the original Teller resolution, is a member, and it was adopted by the Senate by an almost strict party vote, the Democrats opposing it. By this amendment Cuba is asked to agree to the following demands before we give up the government of the island: —

(1) Never to make a treaty with any foreign power which may impair Cuban independence, nor to permit any foreign power to obtain lodgement on the island.

(2) Never to contract a public debt beyond the ordinary revenues of the island.

(3) To permit the United States to intervene for the preservation of the independence of the government or for the protection of life, or property, or individual liberty.

(4) To ratify the acts of the United States government in Cuba since the overthrow of Spanish power there.

(5) To execute and extend plans for the sanitation of Cuban cities.

(6) To omit the Isle of Pines from the territory of the Cuban republic and to deal by treaty with the United States concerning it.

(7) To sell or to lease coaling or naval stations to the United States.

A small but vehement section of public opinion regards these demands as a breach of faith, disgraceful to us and insulting to the Cubans. Such an opinion is best expressed by the New York *Evening Post*, which says that our action is "in flat violation and repudiation of our national solemn promise to Cuba." It adds: —

"Now that the mask is off our long hypocrisy in regard to Cuba, we see no reason why events should not move rapidly. After having once brought ourselves to say publicly to the Cubans, 'Well, you see now that we lied to you, and that we always meant to take your island,' there ought not to be great delay in proceeding to the work of spoliation."

The calmer and historic view, which is undoubtedly the view of the vast majority of well-informed men and of the majority of the

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M. DE WITTE, RUSSIAN MINISTER OF FINANCE.

From a Russian photograph

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STEPHEN PHILLIPS.

The English poet, author of "Paolo and Francesca" and "Herod."

(See page 666)

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best newspapers is expressed by the New York *Times*: —

"The sovereignty and independence of Cuba are perfectly compatible with all that we require. Less than we require would not insure our own safety or the peace and tranquillity of the island. Out of the power we now have under the treaty with Spain we must reserve rights requisite for self-protection."

The first response by Cuba was made in a preamble to the proposed constitution which was adopted by the Constitutional Convention at Havana on February 27. In effect this preamble denies the demand of the United States regarding the control of foreign loans and the right to interfere to preserve order, and the request for the rental or purchase of coaling stations. The preamble is indeed practically a refusal — at least an evasion. But this action can hardly be regarded as final.

Nor is it at all to be wondered at that the Cuban politicians should not instantly adjust themselves to a practical proposition of such far-reaching importance. Their temperament is to approach it rhetorically. But the best-informed opinion is that an agreement will be reached substantially in accordance with our demands; and a reasonable expectation is that the whole question will ultimately be settled by these principles.

AN HONORABLE AND FORTUNATE SETTLEMENT

THE whole history of international relations will reveal no parallel to the justice, the humanity, and the fairness of this proposition. The misgovernment of the Cubans by Spain was one of the grossest scandals in the world. The people were oppressed, robbed, murdered; the land was laid waste; the principal city was a plague-spot, fatal to its inhabitants and a constant danger to us. Yellow fever has caused the loss of enough property in the United States to buy the island outright, and more deaths than the Spanish war. The people had been denied a chance for a normal development, industrial, educational, or political. Nobody now living can recall a time when life and property were safe in every part of the island till now.

Such was the condition of Cuba and the Cubans when we pronounced it intolerable, and freed them from the misrule of Spain. As soon as the war was ended, we brought peace and safety to every part of the island; we suppressed brigandage; we set local government on its feet; we cleansed the cities, and introduced a sanitary system that has already robbed yellow fever of its terrors; we have opened the island, rich in opportunities, to all forms of legitimate development, making life and property safe; and we have established a school system modelled on our own. In a word, we have set an oppressed, hindered, and despoiled people in the way of advancement, not for our profit, but for their own development; and we have bidden them set up a government of their own, and to work out their own salvation, — all this before there is any conclusive demonstration that they can govern themselves well, for they are a people who have not been trained to self-government.

Self-government for them was made possible only by our voluntary emancipation of them; and, before relinquishing our hold on the island as the responsible sponsors for the new nation, we ask a pledge from them of the reasonably good conduct of their affairs and of freedom from international complications which might bring danger to them and to us, precisely as Mexico brought trouble for herself and danger to us. Beyond this, we ask nothing for the gift of their freedom, except the sale of coaling stations and an island of no commercial value but of possible strategic use to us. Indeed, we give them, in addition to their independence, — which they could never have won for themselves, — our protection against possible international trouble. A small and weak nation, they thus have all the advantages of a strong ally perpetually.

We should not be true to our obligations to ourselves and to civilization to demand less. We have no moral right to leave Cuba without taking such reasonable precautions that our work there shall be made permanently effective. Any other course would be silly, sentimental, flabby, — immoral. Any other course would mean a plain shirking of our obligations to civilization. There is nothing in our demands that is humiliating to the Cubans. If they recognize no obligations to us, and no obligations on our part to ourselves and to civilization, by our liberation of them, they will give proof that, as they could not win their freedom, they are also unlikely to profit by it; and we shall have to be respon-

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From "Memoirs of a Revolutionist." *By the courtesy of Messrs. Houghton, Mifflin & Co.*

PRINCE KROPOTKIN,

The Russian Revolutionist, now on a visit to the United States.

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sible for them whether they will or not. If they should, by imprudent financial measures or in other ways, come to have serious international trouble, we should, for our own protection, have to interfere. If they should not be able to prevent internal disorder, the same necessity might arise. Except coaling stations, negotiations about the Isle of Pines, and an agreement about sanitary work, we ask nothing but what in case of trouble we should have to take. Our demand means simply that we shall have the right to prevent trouble.

We have kept the pledge that we made to be liberators and not conquerors; we waged a just war for the freedom of an oppressed people; and we give them a free national existence and our protection — actions as worthy of the Republic's best aspirations as any in our history or in the history of mankind. It is a chapter in humanity and political unselfishness that must make every citizen thrill with pride who looks at human development in its proper perspective. In fact, there is no brighter chapter in the history of nations.

To us, too, this settlement is fortunate. It will remove forever the danger that the Cubans might at some time seek admission to the Union, or that some political party of our own might seek admission for them — a result that we distinctly do not desire. The possible danger of ultimate admission to statehood is the only grave danger that is involved in our forced assumption of responsibility for the old Spanish colonies — the danger that, out of a mistaken sentiment for "freedom," we might some day open all our doors to them. The real danger from the "anti-imperialist" party is that it may yet come to make such a demand; for it is to such lengths that government by emotion runs.

DEFINITE PROGRESS IN THE PHILIPPINES

IN the Philippine Islands events are moving rapidly toward a corresponding possible ultimate result that seems likely very soon to be obtained in Cuba — that is toward ultimate free government, whenever the people shall be ready for it and equal to it. Greater progress has been made during the month in extending civil rule, fewer casualties in battle are reported, and a larger number of insurgents have laid down their arms, we believe, than within any similar recent period; and Congress has passed the Spooner amendment to the Army appropriation bill.

This amendment empowers the President, who has hitherto acted only as commander-in-chief of the army in the islands, to substitute civil for military rule as fast as conditions warrant. It marks the authorized beginning, therefore, of civil government there; and we go forward toward a definite aim. An additional feature of the amendment as it was passed throws unusual safeguards around franchises, and mines and land transfers, so that these valuable properties may not be misused during the period of transition to stable government.

The main declaration of the amendment is as follows: —

"All military, civil, and judicial powers necessary to govern the Philippine islands . . . shall, until otherwise provided by Congress, be vested in such manner as the President of the United States shall direct, for the establishment of civil government and for maintaining and protecting the inhabitants of said islands in the free enjoyment of their liberty, property, and religion."

While the President yet has vast power in the Philippines, — military power so long as he chooses and finds it necessary to exercise it, — the Congress has made a declaration of purpose and the country is committed to the establishment of local government and the ultimate planting of free institutions. This is now clear and unmistakable.

Two more important provinces have been organized under civil rule, and José Serapio, an uncle of Aguinaldo, and formerly a colonel in his army, has been appointed the first civil governor of one of them.

THE GREAT STEEL COMPANY

THE organization of the United Steel Corporation, by the consolidation of eight of all the great steel companies in the country, brings under one management the largest aggregation of private commercial and financial interests that a single group of men ever had in hand. One of the organizers is quoted as saying that it is "the broadest, biggest, most gigantic, and most influential combination ever effected." The constituent companies are the Carnegie Company, the

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American Steel and Wire Company, the Federal Steel Company, the National Tube Company, the National Steel Company, the American Tin Plate Company, the American Steel-Hoop Company, and the American Sheet Steel Company.

This organization so far eclipses all previous industrial consolidations that it instantly became a subject of world-wide comment and concern, for international, industrial, political, and financial reasons. The principal factor in our exporting supremacy is steel, and the manufacturers of other countries naturally see in this concentration of American steel interests a strengthening of American exporting capacity. A well-managed combination has great advantages in extending foreign trade over a number of competing concerns. This consolidation is likely to do much to increase our exports.

The economic view of the subject is not less interesting in other ways. Every well-organized and well-managed industrial combination has cheapened the cost of production. The statement was made by one of the organizers of this great company that consolidation would save, in the single item of middlemen's expenses, as much as $80,000,000 a year. Most great industrial organizations also have improved the quality of their product by the employment of more scientific methods than smaller companies have employed, by the utilization of waste materials, and by the multiplication of products. Most of them, too, have cheapened the price of their products to the consumer. How many of these results will follow the organization of this consolidation nobody can predict; but there is no reason why it should be an exception to the general rule.

The corporation is so conspicuous by reason of its magnitude that it may possibly become a subject of earnest political discussion, but the probabilities are that its very magnitude will prevent this result. Before the organization was formed, a bill was introduced in the House of Representatives by Mr. Babcock, of Wisconsin, to take off all customs duties on materials or products that affected the corporation. Mr. Babcock is a member of the Ways and Means Committee, a Republican of influence, and Chairman of the National Congressional Campaign Committee. His bill is a reminder that the protective principle has lost much of its old-time prominence and power — lost it by the pressure of events. Our iron and steel exports last year amounted to $130,000,000. But Mr. Babcock's bill gives hint also of possible political discussion that this organization may provoke.

From a financial point of view the magnitude of the new corporation is bewildering. Its capitalization is $1,146,000,000 — more than a thousand million dollars; and the properties are said now to be yielding large profits on this sum.

Interesting, too, is the personal point of view. Out of the large number of strong and successful men that have brought this result about, three stand out conspicuously, — Mr. Carnegie, who retires from active ownership; Mr. Morgan, the financial organizer; and Mr. Schwab, who has become the president of the new corporation. The achievements and careers of these men make a new chapter in the financial and industrial work of the world. The main motive of the organization was to secure Mr. Carnegie's retirement — a result that his competitors regarded as desirable.

THE TRUSTS AND THE PUBLIC WELFARE

THE general, sometimes violent, and too often vague discussion of trusts will be greatly stimulated by the new steel corporation. We have now had enough experience with such combinations to clear the public mind of fear on several points. They do cheapen production; as a rule they cheapen the cost to consumers; they have generally produced a better product; they have not reduced the wages of skilled workmen; but they have at times displaced unskilled labor, and in some industries they have reduced the income of the producers of raw materials. They have had a strong influence in lessening competition, and they have reduced the number of opportunities in these particular industries for individual initiative, but they have made better opportunities for men of exceptional ability. They have promoted foreign trade; and they have developed and organized many side industries, thereby also increasing the volume of productive work.

As for the monopoly of raw materials, the steel corporation is only a step in that direc-

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tion and by no means as long a step as that taken, for instance, by the Standard Oil Company. All the great coal and iron deposits are not controlled by the new combination.

Politically the point of acute interest is of course the tariff; and it can hardly be called a foolish, though it is perhaps a premature remark, that one commentator on the new organization made, — that it sounded the knell of high protection.

Apart from this specific political controversy about the tariff, there is one other point that disturbs the public mind, vaguely but at times greatly. It is the real or possible influence of great organizations on legislation, both local and national. It would be hard to say on which side greater hurt has yet been done to real democratic government, by the corporations' improper influence on legislation or by the wild and hindering legislation provoked in opposition to corporation influence.

But there are two points of evil contact between corporations and our political machinery that sadly need consideration. One point is the submission by corporations to assessment and blackmail by political bosses and campaign committees; and the other is the increasing number of men representing special interests who secure seats in the United States Senate. The Senate has for this reason become the danger point in our national government.

The professional critics of everything often remind us of the degeneration of the House of Representatives; but the House is, perhaps, as fairly representative of the whole country as it ever was. It probably lacks as large a proportion of exceptionally strong and striking individualities as it had in the earlier days; but it would be difficult to prove by rigid comparison of the House of our own time with the House of any preceding time that there has been a definite decline. We hear sometimes, too, of the commonplaceness of recent Presidents; but the eight men who have been Presidents since Lincoln were much stronger men than the eight who were Presidents between Jackson and Lincoln. That is to say, Johnson, Grant, Hayes, Garfield, Arthur, Cleveland, Harrison, and McKinley are stronger men than Van Buren, W. H. Harrison, Tyler, Polk, Taylor, Fillmore, Pierce, and Buchanan.

But in the Senate there has been a decline not in the ability of the senators, but in their relation to the public welfare. Patronage-mongers, bosses, campaign managers, representatives of "interests," find their way there in increasing numbers. There are senators who could not be elected to the House from any Congressional district; and there are men whose seats have been directly bought — not always nor oftenest by the senators themselves, but by the "interests" that they stand for or are identified with. Responsible to no definite public constituency, there are always senators who turn foreign relations to partisan or personal profit. They seek to please some faction of a party or to drive a bargain with the President for offices. If we ever have the frank confessions of any recent President, we shall be sure to hear that the Senate gave him more trouble and balked his administration oftener for petty purposes than all other branches of the government, and oftenest stood in the way of the public welfare.

It would not be fair to lay the blame for these bad political tendencies on any particular form of the aggregation of commercial influence; but they are tendencies that have necessarily come with the rise of great concentrated interests. And these seem to be the danger points.

THE TRUE KEY TO AMERICAN DEMOCRACY

MR. FREDERIC HARRISON, our distinguished English visitor, in an address delivered at the University of Chicago on Washington's birthday, pointed out the essential and sufficient reason why the future must belong to republican institutions and methods.

"The republic is the inevitable and final form of human society — the normal type of intelligent citizenship. It must dominate the future, for the future society must be an industrial society. Whatever else is doubtful, it is certain that the development of industrial right will be the keynote of the generations to come. Now industry is of its nature essentially republican; its life is the free coöperation of intelligent masses of men, working with good will to the common interest. Industrial life must ultimately eliminate every remnant of privilege, of caste, of monopoly, of prerogative; for the more industry becomes highly organized the more perfectly it demands the intelligent and free coöpera-

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tion of workers. Slavery dies out before the sight of free industry. Military or feudal types of society, with caste, privilege, idleness, mastery blazoned on the mediæval heraldry, may struggle for their ancient rank, but industry will slay them in the end. An industrial world — the world of the future grows more and more an industrial world — is a republican world."

This is in a sense a philosophical commonplace. But the full meaning and the wide application of it are so imperfectly apprehended by most of our social philosophers that the literature of industrial democracy has hardly begun to be written. The political expressions of democracy continue to hold the first place in the minds of our best writers — even now, after the prodigious industry of the American people has asserted itself as the prime force in our life. Herein lies the explanation of the surprise with which even our economists have just waked up to our industrial position in the world. While the real force of American character has for a generation been expressing itself in industry and commerce, the literature of contemporaneous life has gone on accumulating about our old domestic political problems; and the men who write and speak have not kept pace with our true national development. The character and skill of the American people to-day find better expression in the wares they make than in the literature that they produce.

THE CONTINUITY OF PROSPEROUS CONDITIONS

THE principles that govern trade conditions are still, in spite of all our knowledge of the world's commerce, a matter to a certain extent of conjecture and hardly yet a matter of absolute demonstration. The old theories whereby panics and depressions were explained have all been discredited; and the whole matter must sometime be reduced to an exact science. Almost every great department of trade now admits of exact calculation of markets and demand in the whole world for reasonable periods in the future; and the crop reports of all the great agricultural nations prevent surprises about the harvest. We have, too, now passed the danger, let us hope, of such financial legislation, or threats of it, as used to frighten all surplus money into seclusion.

But however near or far off may be the time when an absolutely accurate world-wide statement of trade conditions may be made, the vast store of facts now accessible points to an indefinite period of prosperity in the United States. Some of the hopeful large facts are these: —

The volume of currency in active use is the largest we have ever had. The one-dollar and two-dollar bills in circulation have steadily increased from a little more than 76 million dollars on December 31, 1895, to more than 102 millions last December; five-dollar bills, from 257 million dollars to nearly 300 millions; ten-dollar and twenty-dollar bills from 520 million dollars to 700 millions. In silver dollars and smaller coins there has been a corresponding increase during the same period, — from less than 124 million dollars to nearly 160 millions; and there is more silver in use now than at any preceding time in our history.

Our export trade in spite of its recent phenomenal increase continues to grow in all the most important articles of export. Our shipments to China have been checked to the disadvantage chiefly of Southern cotton mills; and the threatened trade war with Russia is a possible cloud on our export map, yet, however, no larger than a man's hand. The war in South Africa has hurt the world's trade seriously in some respects; but for the time it has been an advantage to us because of the supplies that have been bought from us.

Our great railroad interests are nearly all in very much better condition than they have before been since 1893 — better, indeed, for the progressive and healthful development of the country than they ever were before.

Two definite and permanent gains in our domestic trade are made by the revival of activity in two great sections of the country — the Southern States and the Pacific Coast. The increasing Oriental trade will continue to enrich our Pacific States, and more than ever when the long Chinese trouble is ended. All the upland and midland South is greatly more prosperous than it ever was before. There is heard a cry of warning about the multiplication of Southern cotton mills; but they continue to prosper in spite of the temporary cutting off of a part of their trade to China. Of greater importance, perhaps, than the

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cotton mills are the increasing production of iron and steel; and of still greater importance to the mass of the people is the remarkable growth in many Southern communities of small industries. And the whole material condition and outlook of the people are changing by reason of the success and the increase in the number of industrial schools there — schools for each race. The day can never return when practically all the money in circulation in the South came from the sale of a single crop, nearly all which was manufactured elsewhere.

The prosperity of the South and of the Pacific States is not won at the loss of other parts of the country. Perhaps no region on earth has ever had so rapid a growth in real and lasting wealth-production as the "empire by the great lakes" during this decade.

All the small and temporary trade signs point the same way. The money brokers find fewer borrowers than usual, outside the normal routine of bank business, in the middle West and the South. It has been noticed by the trade journals that the prosperous manufacturers are enlarging their plants and not investing their earnings in speculative ventures. The commercial travellers of the great jobbing houses have sent in larger orders than for many years for most kinds of staple goods.

By every test the prosperity that we enjoy shows a solid foundation; and, under prudent management, there seems no reason to fear an early decline of it.

THE PASSING OF THE PROHIBITION CRUSADE

THE restricted influence of the crusade of Mrs. Nation against the rum-shops in Kansas has really shown much growth in public calmness and philosophy with regard to the drink evil. True, she has raised a great row in Kansas. She has broken the mirrors and the furniture of many dram-shops; her example has been followed by both men and women in not a few Kansas towns; there have been threats by like-minded reformers in other states; she has suffered the "martyrdom" of imprisonment; she has edited a newspaper "for one day"—a "joint-smashing edition"; she has received the praise of organizations of emotional men and women, who hail her as a leader of a new movement; and she has been invited, so it is reported, to address the University of Texas. Yet the whole movement appears much greater at a distance than it does in Kansas; and there is not the slightest indication of a general crusade for prohibition such as has several times swept over the country. The same type of man or woman that used to be a temperance "reformer" is now plainly a "crank."

She has, moreover, a certain moral claim to toleration — as those who believe in government by emotion regard the law — because every dram-shop in Kansas is unlawful. If the law cannot be enforced by the proper officers (so this class of reformers reason), it must be enforced by "crusaders"—by private violence. This is, of course, the mob's justification of lynching. Mrs. Nation's crusade is a violent effort to make an unenforced law effective. The Supreme Court of Kansas has handed down a decision (as any court would with such a case before it) that the breaking of furniture in a saloon by a private person, even if the saloon be unlawful, is a misdemeanor. Legal forms, of course, count for nothing in the mind of a woman who wrote to the judge that sent her to jail:—

> "I want you to quit your fooling and let me out of here. If you cause me to miss my engagements, I won't feel like a ministering angel unto you. It is time for you to recover yourself before the devil, your master, makes a clean sweep with you into hell. You know you are persecuting one of God's children who loves you for Jesus's sake. Let me out that I may go about my business of saving such poor devils as you. Write or come to see me right off."

Mrs. Nation's experience and its reception point to three conclusions,— that Kansas continues to be our most interesting social experiment farm; that unenforcible laws, even though they be embodied in a constitution, bring contempt of law, and are likely to encourage violent methods; and that the public confidence in successful prohibition of the drink traffic has been utterly lost. We have learned that lesson at least. A general prohibition crusade is not again possible. Books like the Report on the Legislative Aspects of the Drink Problem made under the direction of President Eliot, of Harvard University, have conclusively proved that pro-

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hibition, except in small areas, is provocative of worse vices than drink.

GENERAL BELL'S RAPID ADVANCEMENT

THE promotion of Captain J. Franklin Bell, over more than 500 captains, more than 200 majors, 98 lieutenant-colonels, and 77 colonels, to a brigadier-generalship in the regular army calls sharp attention to his career in the Philippines. He has not attracted as much popular notice as several other officers. Indeed, his brilliant military career is almost unknown to the public. But there has been no more daring military work in any army than his.

When the new United States volunteer regiments were organized, three of them were recruited at Manila with seasoned fighters from the old State volunteers, and Bell was given the colonelcy of the Thirty-sixth. His regiment was not attached to any brigade, and he acted as a free lance, reporting only to General MacArthur, the division commander.

In one fight, in which his whole regiment was engaged, he took nine men with him, and crawling close to a body of insurgents in a trench, got on their flank. In the hot fighting that followed, his party killed 29 of the 30 men in the trench. One was allowed to escape to tell how it happened. None of his party met with a mishap.

His mode of fighting was to spread his men out in a very long skirmish line, fully fifty feet apart — just in communicating distance with each other. Each one was left to depend considerably on his own resources, and this method developed a regiment of extraordinary fighters. It took a good shot to hit one of his men, and the Filipinos are not especially accurate marksmen.

When the American troops reached the Bambam River on the advance to Tarlac, they found both ends of the railroad bridge destroyed. The Filipinos were in a strong position on a mountain, from which they could fire on to the Americans below. On the first day our loss was severe. But during the night Colonel Bell led the Thirty-sixth on a circuitous march, and by morning he had the regiment on a higher mountain overlooking the insurgent position. Before long his men were pouring a heavy fire into the enemy, and it proved one of the most disastrous defeats to the Filipino cause.

Once when riding ahead of his column in company with ten of his officers, they suddenly came upon a hundred or more insurgents. Bell was cut off from his comrades and found himself alone in a clearing with seven Filipinos, who were armed with rifles. He had only a revolver and only one shell in it. He rode headlong into the group of Filipinos shouting, and he shot off his single pistol ball. It struck the captain, and the others ran. He caught them and commanded them to throw down their rifles. He captured a part of them and brought them back to their captain, who had only been wounded in the arm. When he rejoined his comrades, he was leading the captain and two other Filipinos as his prisoners. It was for this exploit that he received the medal of honor. It was Captain Bell who rescued Lieutenant Gillmore and his companions of the navy.

Once while bathing in a river at a presumably safe place on the march, the regiment was attacked by the enemy concealed in the neighboring hills. The men put their shoes on, a few tarried to get their trousers, but most of them were without any clothing when they charged the Filipinos and drove them away.

General Bell is a Kentuckian, forty-four years old; he is tall and dark, and the hardy qualities of the soldier can be easily seen in his countenance.

NAVAL ETIQUETTE AND CHARACTER

IT is sometimes difficult for the democratic civilian to appreciate the professional point of view of the naval officer — in a sense the necessary point of view — as regards what the civilian might hastily regard as gold-lace etiquette. This fact has been forcibly called to mind by Rear-Admiral Sampson's refusal to recommend the promotion of the gunner Morgan, which would put him in line for advancement to be an officer. The admiral, in declining to recommend the promotion of a man of many good qualities, laid stress upon the necessity of the polite side of an officer's training. A naval officer is a man who represents his country abroad, a man who must worthily maintain a high social rank; and men whose early opportunities for such training were neglected ought not

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to become officers. This view as a general principle is perfectly sound — is indeed necessary. Of course it may be exaggerated to the point of snobbishness, or unjustly applied, just as the contrary view may be insisted on to the point of sheer demagogism. Little attention would have been paid to the rear-admiral's letter at any other time. But it was made public just when his name and Rear-Admiral Schley's were before the Senate for promotion to the vice-admiralty; and its publication had unfortunately much to do with the Senate's failure to ratify his nomination.

It is unfortunate that Admiral Sampson wrote such a statement, and unfortunate that it was published; for the destroyer of Cervera's fleet and his officers ought to receive the reward that has been scandalously withheld. But it was pusillanimous, partisan, and altogether wretched conduct to decline action on the nomination because of what Admiral Sampson wrote — even if in what he wrote it be granted that he was clearly wrong.

The officers of the United States navy are the finest body of heroic men that breathe this world's air. Bravery, loyalty, unselfish devotion to the service, patriotism, — these are taken for granted among them. Any one of them and every one of them holds his life ready as a joyful sacrifice at any moment to the honor of the service or the glory of the Republic. This admirable and heroic spirit is the fine flower of careful training.

Democratic we all are — democratic to the core — in all our philosophy. Our civilization rests on the broad basis of equal opportunity. Yet the highly disciplined organization of the navy plays its part in maintaining its noble spirit. And political resentment of naval spirit and manners is more likely to do harm than an unfortunate expression by a naval officer.

THE RESTORATION OF AMERICAN SEAMEN

THE forced setting aside of the ship-subsidy bill was due primarily to the deep-seated objection to subsidies which discussion of it developed, and also to the hesitant mood that the Senate was forced to feel when it came face to face with a total appropriation of three-quarters of a billion dollars. Any bill like this will have a diminishing chance of enactment as time goes on. In the first place, American foreign trade is so rapidly increasing in volume that our own merchant marine will grow without such help. In the second place, this bill will be good campaign material for the Democrats. Together with the general increase of governmental expenditures it will cut a large political figure. It was a dangerous piece of legislation to propose.

But the very complex problem of building up a carrying trade in American ships, by some method, remains with us. There is less profit in ocean freights than there was in the old days of the supremacy of the American sailor; but there are reasons other than the making of money why we ought to carry our own wares to other lands in our own ships.

Perhaps the best reason of all is that, although we trade across two oceans and up and down the world as no people before except our British kinsmen ever did, the American sailor has almost gone from the seas. It is difficult to find seafaring men enough of the proper metal for our navy. Yet it was only two generations ago when men trained on Yankee ships were the best seafarers, perhaps, that ever sailed. With the breakdown of our merchant service during the Civil War, the kind of men that had before gone to sea took up other pursuits; and never since have we become in a true sense a maritime people. The great change that has come by the substitution of steamships for sailing vessels has played its part in banishing them from the sea. But all the oceans of the world ought to be the field of American practical efficiency, endurance, and daring, for the sake of our national character as well as for the sake of our trade. If the sea-roving experience of our race were taken away, — if such a thing be thinkable, — we should be a race of distinctly weaker fibre. Any right plan of well-balanced national development requires that the masters of our continent be masters of our oceans also. The sea as a trainer of robust character has gone out of our life, as it has almost gone also out of our romance. A grave national duty is to bring it back — not by subsidies, but by some better method.

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COLLEGE COURSES AND CULTURE

IN the long controversy about culture-studies as compared with studies that may be regarded as chiefly utilitarian, in our colleges, the culture-studies, represented chiefly by Greek, have continued to lose. The general tendency toward the recognition of professional studies has now almost carried the day. In Harvard, Yale, and Columbia, and now in the University of Pennsylvania, courses preparatory to the professional schools are accepted for the senior year. The University of Michigan will confer only the A.B. degree, and no longer Bachelor of Philosophy, and Bachelor of Letters, and so on; in other words, all the courses of a somewhat special character which have hitherto been recognized by special degrees are now put on a level with the general Bachelor's degree. The movement is strong to reduce the college course to three years instead of four.

The meaning of these changes is that the old contention of the Grecians — that distinctly culture-studies (of which Greek was typical) are necessary for a young man's education — is fast losing its hold. The broader question was not so much whether Greek itself should keep its old-time place of prominence as whether the "humanities" should yield further to the utilities. The humanities seem at last practically to have lost the day in most of our universities.

Two things may be said about the change — either that the more utilitarian studies really serve the purposes of culture as well as the humanities served it, or that the demands of modern life require the sacrifice of the humanities. Neither assertion is true. The disciplinary value of the sciences is as great no doubt as the disciplinary value of the ancient languages. But the needs of culture cannot be satisfied by mere discipline any more than it can be satisfied by merely utilitarian subjects. A rounded intellectual life requires a background and a mellowness that come only from contact with the highest artistic products of the race, and with its idealized products — indeed with its literature. The thing that the old scholars mean by culture is a real thing, an indispensable thing, a thing, too, the foundations of which must be laid in youth. The best balance of intellectual manhood can be attained in no other way.

To attain it, fortunately there is an easier way than the way of Greek. The losing contention of the Grecians is deserved. The plain truth is that in modern education the possibilities of culture through Greek studies have practically not been realized, for but one lad in a hundred has, in these later generations, reached the degree of attainment that the Greek contention presupposes.

The easier and better way of retaining, restoring, and greatly broadening the culture-studies of a college course is to recognize the culture-value of our own language and literature. A broader and saner and more "humane" and thorough and loving study of the literature of our own race is the obvious way out of the dilemma. And it is more than an escape from a dilemma. It is a better means of broadening and deepening our culture than we have ever utilized or tried. We are approaching it gradually. We had one generation or more of rhetoricians and *dilettanti* as teachers of English — the slipshod easy old tomfoolery of general "English Literature" courses. We now have a generation of accurate and narrow English philologians and text-tinkers. Presently we shall have, let us hope, a generation of broad and mellow scholars who know their subject technically of course, but who likewise know it "humanely." There is a new culture and an adequate one in this direction. Surely we have been slow in coming into our inheritance.

THE SECTIONAL DIVISION OF CHURCHES

ONE of the great religious tasks in the United States is to reunite those large sects, notably the Presbyterians and the Methodists, that were split in two by the Civil War. Yet the truly Christian and patriotic efforts to reunite them do not seem to bring success hopefully near. They were divided by slavery, the Southern theologians of the old time maintaining that it was divinely sanctioned. Church property, too, became a matter of dispute. But these original causes of disunion have long ago been removed; and there is every reason on the face of things why this difference should be healed. But in the great liberalization of most Protestant sects in recent years, the Southern churches have lagged behind the

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Northern; and a new difference is in danger of arising — a practical difference in faith. Both yet recite the same creeds, but they interpret them somewhat differently. Herein lies the greatest danger — that there may become a permanent difference in faith between the churches that bear the same names in both sections of the country.

The subject is of far wider scope than its mere theological importance. The social, and remotely even the political, force of these churches is very great. They mould the family attitude — the fireside feeling — toward most great subjects. They play a silent but strong part in the lives of masses of the best people, especially of the best women; and any dividing influence of this subtle nature is greatly to be deplored — how greatly few persons know except those who have intimate personal relations on both sides of this invisible line of division. It touches character, it touches the view of life, it touches practical affairs, it touches our whole social organization — it affects our national life profoundly.

There is perhaps no graver duty that falls to any class of earnest men in this generation than the duty that is laid on the rulers of these divided churches to reunite them. It is both a religious and a patriotic duty.

THE INCREASING CHARM OF NEW YORK

THE spasmodic attention that New York City attracts by reason of its civic condition throws a proper conception of the city out of balance. The newspapers all over the country give emphatic publicity to a police scandal, and men are likely to forget that the metropolis is every year making marvellous progress not only in wealth but in beauty and in all that ministers to the higher life. The changes of almost any single year are little short of wonderful.

In architecture a decade has brought a revolution. The building of the Columbia University library, of the Cathedral of St. John, the great arch of which is conspicuous on Morningside Heights, the new buildings beyond the river of the University of New York, the improvement of Riverside Drive, giving one of the noblest river views in the world; the completion of the enlarged Museum of Natural History, the great public library that is forthwith to be erected on Forty-second Street, the new building of the Brooklyn Institute, near Prospect Park, the new bridges across East River, the subway in course of construction, and most of all the intellectual and æsthetic progress that all these imply — denote that the metropolis is taking its place among the greatest cities of the world as a desirable place of residence as well as a profitable place to work.

PROGRESS WITH THE CHINESE TROUBLE

VERY considerable progress has apparently been made toward the settlement of the Chinese question. It was announced on February 21 that the Chinese Government had accepted the death-roll prepared by the ministers of the Powers, and that on February 27 the men that had been condemned were executed; others were permitted and commanded to commit suicide; and those that are beyond the reach of the Government, it was announced, shall in due time be punished. So ends this ghastly preliminary of the negotiations. The second important demand of the ministers has also been complied with, and government examinations have been suspended in those provinces where there were anti-foreign outbreaks. This suspension of examinations is regarded by the Chinese as an especial degradation.

The German Field-Marshal, Count von Waldersee, gave it out early in February that he would make a more serious and destructive punitive expedition than had yet been made — this time toward the temporary home of the court. General Chaffee refused to join it with his legation guard, and the United States instructed its ambassadors to all the Powers to express our disapproval. When the Chinese Government accepted the death-roll prepared by the ministers, the expedition was abandoned. It was perhaps only a "bluff" to force the Chinese to action.

The United States Government took occasion to secure the agreement of each Power to refrain during the negotiations from appropriating territory without the consent of all the others, which is nothing more than the affirmation, in part, of their original agreement. Such action on our part seemed worth while, because the threat of more extensive punitive expeditions, and Russia's occupation

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of Manchuria, seem to imply forgetfulness of the original purpose of the allies.

The delay in going faster toward a final settlement of the long-drawn-out trouble had made the hope of ultimately maintaining the integrity of the Empire faint. The longer the Government is kept from Pekin, the weaker it must become. Yet the longer the military occupation of Pekin, the deeper must become the hatred of the Chinese for foreigners. But the situation now is distinctly more hopeful than it has before been. It has even been announced that the Emperor will soon return to Pekin.

But the only important matter yet to be settled — and it is the most important of all — is the amounts of indemnity to be paid to the several Powers and the method of paying it. Here is the *crux* of the whole matter. If the Powers are reasonable, all may end well and reasonably soon. Otherwise such a mortgage, in some form or other, may be taken on China as will end at last in territorial appropriation, in spite of agreements now made of a contrary purpose.

Minister Conger has been granted a leave of absence, and Mr. W. W. Rockhill, who was sent out by the President to China as a special commissioner, is active minister at Pekin.

IN CHINA AFTER THE SETTLEMENT

BUT it is becoming increasingly plain that, even if there be no appropriation of territory by the Powers, China will never again be as hitherto a closed area to Western enterprise and influence; and if such a result be honorably achieved, it will be a great gain.

And such a change will be the beginning of one of the most important experiments in history — the experiment of the industrial conquest of a great Asiatic population by Western nations. England has made as complete a conquest of India as any Western people can perhaps hope to make of an Oriental population; and yet the millions of India remain almost, if not quite, as Oriental as they were before English civilization began. On the other hand, the greatest wonder of modern history is the change that the Japanese have wrought in themselves, or if not actual change, at least a remarkable adaptation to Occidental civilization.

The Chinese are neither people of India nor Japanese; and what change may be possible in their life and methods is matter of sheer speculation.

THE GOVERNMENT'S SCIENTIFIC WORK

ONE of the most important pieces of domestic legislation enacted by the last Congress was the reorganization of the scientific work of the Department of Agriculture. The "Divisions" of Forestry, Chemistry, and Soils were made "bureaus," and a "Bureau" of Plant Industry was formed. This change means a recognition of the work done in these departments, and an enlargement of their resources and scope. The revolutionary value of the work done in these "divisions" was at first only tolerated, not appreciated. It was not very long ago when it was regarded more or less as merely routine scientific experimentation of hardly more than clerical importance.

Now by the additional dignity given by this reorganization, and the chance for better reward and wider scope, these scientific workers will fare better, and these bureaus will receive something of the recognition they deserve.

The scientific work of the government, especially in the Agricultural Department, has been done by some of the best equipped and most devoted men in the world, working a revolution for the American farmer, and receiving a smaller income than a teacher in a college. There is one man of eminence, and he is not an exception, who has carried on his original work there for a salary of $1500, and has declined an offer of $5000 to give his services for private ends.

And agriculture is fast becoming scientific as a result of such work. The Year Book of the Department is one of the most noteworthy publications in the world; the experiment stations in every state and territory last year distributed copies of nearly five hundred reports and bulletins to more than half a million persons. Improved methods, new kinds of crops, new varieties of fruits, a scientific knowledge of soils, remedies for blights and pests and diseases, — the work is come to be perhaps the best work of its sort in the world, and many of the men who do it are among the greatest benefactors of the race in their generation. They are bringing a new day for the farmer, not only in his work, but in

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his intellectual life, and they are putting our greatest industry on a scientific basis.

PRINCE KROPOTKIN

PRINCE KROPOTKIN, scholar, socialist, — revolutionist indeed, — is again in the United States, lecturing on Russian Literature. The career of this extraordinary man was told by himself just after his last visit to the United States in his "Memoirs of a Revolutionist," which is one of the most interesting of modern autobiographies.

RUSSIA AND A POSSIBLE TARIFF WAR

M. DE WITTE, the Russian Minister of Finance, is putting his hand on the nerve-centres of international politics with a frequency and a daring that calls attention sharply to his extraordinary activity. It was he who strengthened Russia's hold on Manchuria till the other Powers have felt moved to protest at St. Petersburg. He has planned Russian supervision of Manchurian police and Russian monopoly of Manchurian railways, even against China herself; in a word, under his plan of management Russia has appropriated Manchuria without technically annexing it to the Russian Empire. Manchuria is about equal in area to both Germany and France. This forward action of Russia has aroused China and the allied Powers to recall to the Czar's government the international agreement to refrain from taking Chinese territory during the negotiations.

It is reported, too, that a change of sweeping significance has been made by this strong minister in Russian finance. He has converted the St. Petersburg stock exchange into a government department. He dictates the nomination and the removal of members, and all stock-brokers must make a substantial deposit with the Government. The movement is interpreted as a measure to bring all the important powers of finance directly under government control.

But the action of M. De Witte that has attracted most attention in our part of the world is the threatened tariff war between the United States and Russia. By the interpretation of our law of countervailing duties made by Secretary Gage — namely, that the Russian system of "draw-back" duties on beet sugar is equivalent to an export duty on beet sugar to the United States — it was ordered that our rate of duty on Russian sugar be increased. Instantly, M. De Witte raised the rate of duty in Russia on our iron and steel manufactures. Our action came just when he could make best use of it. The Russian Government was considering possible methods of giving additional protection to Russian metal products; and this opportunity to please this "element" of Russian industrial life came to hand most opportunely.

The result of this incipient tariff war cannot yet be clearly foreseen. American manufacturers have earnestly protested against the ruling of the Secretary of the Treasury. The increased duty on a cargo of Russian beet-sugar has been paid in New York under protest, and an effort will be made to have the United States Court hand down a decision on the Secretary's ruling. Our exports of iron and steel to Russia are not very large, — about eleven millions of dollars last year, — but the market is a promising one, and the beginning of a tariff war is a bad omen for trade.

The danger is the greater because of the strong and swift tendency to organize all important Russian industries into State Departments. Manufactures may be so organized. M. De Witte rose to power by his excellent service as government director of railways. He is apparently organizing all the great activities of finance under government control. Government control is the direction of his strong administration; and herein lies the danger of a threatened tariff war. It may become a war against the Russian Government as itself a manufacturer.

ONE MORAL OF A TARIFF WAR

IT is a striking evidence of the new place we fill in the world — the rapidity and the earnestness with which the tariff war with Russia roused our manufacturers and commercial bodies. If it had been a declaration of hostilities, a wide public excitement could not have been more quickly aroused. It has not been many years since such an action by almost any foreign government would have caused no comment outside of the few trade circles that were directly affected. But now such an event becomes instantly a matter of general public concern. Strike our trade and you touch our patriot-

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ism. An eloquent evidence is thus given of the awakening of public sentiment to the importance of the whole world to us and to our well-being. Avoid "foreign entanglements"? Every interest in these days is world-wide, and a stay-at-home policy is as impossible as it would be for every community to return to that state of industrial organization whereby everybody depended on the village cobbler for shoes.

SOME DEATHS OF THE MONTH

THE death of Mr. William M. Evarts on February 28 ended the career of one of the foremost lawyers that the country has produced. He defended President Johnson in his impeachment trial, and he was counsel for the United States before the Geneva Arbitration Tribunal. As Attorney-General, as Secretary of State, and as senator from New York, he did good service; but it was at the bar that he reached preëminence. As a wit, too, Mr. Evarts has left the world more indebted to him than to any other man of his generation.

The story is told of Mr. Evarts that one day he met Thurlow Weed, and the conversation turned on chances for the presidency.

"Evarts," said Weed, "you are young enough, and able enough, and have prominence enough to look forward reasonably to the presidency if you are willing to do what is essential. First, get elected to the legislature; make yourself prominent there, as you can easily do; identify yourself with some subject that will command public attention; we will see that you are nominated for governor; once elected governor, you can make a record there that will compel your party to name you for President." President Grant asked Mr. Evarts soon afterwards to go as counsel to Geneva. "If you accept Geneva, you can never be President," said Mr. Weed. Four years afterwards, the story goes, the two men met again. "What you failed to do," said Weed, "Tilden did."

Mr. Maurice Thompson, the Indiana writer on nature and the author of "Alice of Old Vincennes," died just when he had won his greatest popular success. His outdoor books will perpetuate his memory and keep alive the charm of the man long after his clever historical romance is forgotten. Other deaths of the month were those of ex-Senator Stephen M. White, of California, and Colonel Albert D. Shaw, a member of Congress from New York and lately commander-in-chief of the Grand Army of the Republic.

THE NEXT VOLUME OF "THE WORLD'S WORK"

THE first volume of THE WORLD'S WORK ends with this number. An effort has been made to present a well-proportioned summary of the most important events of these six months and clearly written interpretations of the larger forces that shape our lives and opinions — in a word, the literature of achievement. It has been a stirring time of great enterprises and changes in government, in finance, and in practical affairs — a good time to live and to work and to write about.

The magazine, we are proud and grateful to announce, immediately established itself, and has won a larger patronage, we think, than any other periodical of high aim has won during a similar period, under modern publishing conditions. The approval and the enthusiasm with which it has been received prove the soundness of the idea that underlies it — that a magazine can do a useful service by interpreting the important achievements of contemporaneous life with directness and in attractive mechanical form and by presenting the literature of action rather than the literature of sheer entertainment of the long-threshed straw called the literature of criticism.

It is unnecessary to say that this service will be better done in subsequent volumes than it has been done in this. During the next volume, it will contain articles on Recent Developments in Transportation and their Commercial and Social Results; The American Workingman and the Secret of his Efficiency and his Economic and Social Status; Some Investigations into the Efficiency of the Public Schools, especially as shown by the Pay of Teachers; articles on the Growth of Several Great Industries which reveal the Economic Forces at Work that are giving us Commercial Supremacy; more articles on specific localities in the United States and their distinctive activities, similar to the recent article on the Empire of the Great Lakes; more articles on the political status and interrelations of European Governments, including France and England; and a special number will be given to a description of the Pan-American Exposition at Buffalo.

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TRUSTWORTHY GUIDES TO BOOKS

THE WORK OF THE AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION IN PREPARING APPRAISALS OF BOOKS—A CONSENSUS OF THE BEST CRITICISM IN IMPORTANT DEPARTMENTS OF LITERATURE—A GUIDE TO BOOKS OF HISTORY

BY

GEORGE ILES

BOOKS wear out almost as slowly as coins. Just as the dimes and quarters of 1900 were added to all the preceding mintages of America, so the books of that twelvemonth went to heighten the mountain store of literature heaped together at the end of 1899. Last year considerably more than seven thousand books were copyrighted by the Librarian of Congress; from Europe came for sale at least three thousand more; and this to increase accumulations of certainly not less than a million volumes already in our libraries. The situation is one of bewilderment, indeed of peril, to those who are not specially informed about books; and who, after all, knows more than a single corner in the vast field of letters? Concerning the few authors who have reached established fame there need be little difficulty, but with regard to the other writers, whose name is legion, which shall we choose?

Twenty-five years ago the chief librarians of America united themselves to secure "the best reading for the largest number at the least cost." To-day the American Library Association includes every librarian of mark on the continent, not a few of them scholars, editors, and authors of distinction, who worthily add to the store they administer.[1] Quite without set purpose these men have found that the guardianship of books merges itself into a trusteeship of letters. To house, equip, and catalogue a library in the best way is to do much, but not enough. The questions remain: Of what quality are the books? Which of them are fittest for my need? A title, duly presented under an author's name and under its subject, tells no more than does the name of an unfamiliar mineral in a museum. Professor Goode, the lamented director of the National Museum at Washington, used to say that a museum is a place where instructive labels are accompanied by well-selected specimens. The label is now appearing upon the book as well as upon the ore or the plant; in its new home it must set forth not merely description, but appraisal, and it is the difficulty of erecting trustworthy scales of judgment that has so long delayed their use in the public library. Here it is, at last, that the people may begin to look for pilotage in the whelming flood of literature. The associated librarians have today set out to engage a bench of judges, competent and impartial, who shall place a just stress upon the best and all helpful books, and brand as they deserve the unworthy books forced upon public attention in so many quarters. In the nineteenth century the public library was a place where one might borrow, with little or no light as to how to borrow wisely; in the twentieth century the public library will serve to bring together the seeker and the knower, so that the borrower and the buyer of books may have the best guidance available.

This new judiciary of letters takes its rise, perforce, at the top rung of education, at the universities. By sheer growth of knowledge its records are now cleft into manageable portions. In a modern university, instead of the single, inclusive library of old, we have the main collection supplemented by branch libraries in the chemical, engineering, medical, and legal departments, in the halls devoted to history, economics, philology, and the rest. The faculty is made up of teachers and inquirers who by tests in the study, the class-room, or the laboratory, as

[1] The secretary of the Association is Mr. Frederick W. Faxon, Boston, Mass.

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well as by that consensus which but slowly reaches print, have learned which are the best books in their several walks, and which others are useful in a minor way. These men make up the weightiest company among the professional critics of America; we see their reviews, duly signed, in the *Political Science Quarterly*, the *American Historical Review*, and similar journals; without signature they appear in literary periodicals of the first rank. Adding to these men their peers outside university gates, the American Library Association has entered upon the task of telling the reader and the student just the word they wish to hear about the thousands of books competing for their attention.

Its initial Guide is to the Literature of American History, and is edited by Mr. J. N. Larned, editor of "History for Ready Reference." His contributors include professors of history at Harvard, Columbia, Yale, Bryn Mawr, Bowdoin, Tulane, Toronto, and McGill, and the Universities of Wisconsin, Michigan, and Chicago. Each critic has chosen the department in which he is an acknowledged authority, selected its noteworthy books, and given each of them the description and criticism an inquirer can profit by. All told, the titles number about three thousand. Mr. Paul Leicester Ford prefixes a syllabus on the documentary sources of American History. It is hoped that the Guide, which is now in the printer's hands, may be published as a card series as well as in book form, so that its aid may come directly under the eye of all who use card catalogues. At Cleveland, at the Public Library and its branches, useful notes are pasted in many of the volumes; in all likelihood the notes of the Guide will be put to the same excellent use in many libraries. In order to keep pace with new books an editor will issue in card series a continuation, probably every third month, of selected titles duly annotated. For this service the staff of contributors will remain enlisted.

There is a prospect that this plan of sifting wheat from chaff may next be taken into the field of economics, and then, we trust, may pass to all other alcoves of our libraries, to the end that everybody may know about books the most authoritative word that can be brought to him. In 1895, on a plan less ambitious, the American Library Association published a list of books for girls and women and their clubs, comprising twenty-one hundred titles. In 1897, with Mr. Russell Sturgis and Mr. H. E. Krehbiel as contributors, it issued a Guide to the Literature of Fine Art, including Music. The publishers for the Association are Houghton, Mifflin, & Co.

This inaugural of a literary court of appeal may resolve one of the delicate questions of librarianship. More than a century ago Edmund Burke argued that civil government should rest with representatives, free to act upon the dictates of their consciences, rather than with delegates deputed to promote measures defined in advance by their constituencies. In the governance of public libraries, minor though their sphere, the question recurs and may not be lightly dismissed. The late William Kite, librarian of the Friends' Library at Germantown, Penn., believed fiction to be injurious. Accordingly he excluded not only novels, but every periodical containing fiction. In an age which deplores a prevailing flabbiness this sturdy Quaker stood out, like a Cromwellian Puritan, for the right as he understood it. Here and there throughout the country are librarians nearly as austere, who object to authors as clean and wholesome as Longfellow and Clemens. Yet in the main the fraternity are wont to keep out of their shelves only such books as may be condemned at a glance as rubbish or poison. Let every noteworthy book but bear the label it deserves and the problem of censorship will settle itself. The people who come to public libraries are not very likely to carry off a book marked "No good," however much it may be trumpeted in the market-place, especially when it is surrounded by other books avouched to be "Good" or "Very good."

At this point, I can imagine an everyday visitor to the public library recoiling with somewhat of alarm. He, or she, may look upon the university critic, the eminent literary reviewer, with no little awe. Is nothing to be had at the counter in the way of books that has not passed his high-held scales? At first, and probably for a good while, the associated critics will have their hands full in passing upon the literature of knowledge; and here we should wish them to prophesy not smooth things, but the truth. Does anybody want a careless and inaccurate geographer, a min-

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eralogist out of date, or the purveyor of an economic fallacy with no reference to its exposure? A little patience in comparing the best criticism with any other will decide for good and all the kind which will be asked for afterward. And then the great classics of all time, the books of inspiration and lift, went through the balances long ago. The chief of them, only a thousand or so in number, may be garnered into a small room such as that of the Providence Library described in the December number of this magazine. Fiction, the third great division of letters, is so vast a sweep of territory, and withal so marshy in places, that the banded librarians will require much practice in easier campaigns before they organize a force to attack it. Indeed, one of the leading thoughts of the hour, with these men and women, is that they may rightfully lay stress on the attractions of their more solid wares. "Business," said Bagehot long ago, "is really more agreeable than pleasure; it interests the whole mind, the aggregate nature of man, more continuously and deeply, but it does not look as if it did." Lowell and Matthew Arnold, Huxley and John Fiske, Lecky and Goldwin Smith, are solid enough, yet with every jot as much grace and wit as Thackeray or George Eliot. And as thousands of our schools attest, a story of exploration, of discovery, or invention has only to be well told to yield boys and girls delight no less than gain.

It is upon their huge array of novels that, with a measure of justice, the opponents of public libraries chiefly direct their guns. In many towns and cities the circulation of fiction is inordinate, while the quality chosen is poor and does not improve. Evident, also, is the fact that a large part of the books go to readers well-to-do in station. To meet this abuse various curbs and fences have been designed. At the Carnegie Library, Allegheny, Penn., Mr. W. M. Stevenson has banished novels of branded inferiority; he found that readers who began with trash seldom went much further. At St. Louis, and elsewhere, a reader is allowed two books at a time, provided that but one may be fiction. A public librarian in New England recently sought to establish a charge of five cents a week for extra copies of popular novels in active demand. The city solicitor declared such a charge unlawful. In the many cases where such an impost is desirable, and would be willingly paid, the legal obstacles may yet be overcome. There is no good reason why the just taxes of the subscription library and the book-store should be evaded at the expense of the civic treasury.

THE RATIO OF EDUCATION TO PRODUCTION[1]

BY

CHARLES W. DABNEY, PH.D.

PRESIDENT OF THE UNIVERSITY OF TENNESSEE

ONE chief characteristic of the last century was the extension of the benefits of education to the masses of the people. Its chief lesson was that education increases the wealth-producing power of a people in direct proportion to its distribution and thoroughness. The relations between education and productivity are so well understood now that you can measure the wealth-producing power of a people by the school privileges which they have enjoyed. Statistics show, for example, that the power of the people of the different states to earn money is in direct proportion to the length of the period that the average citizen of each state has attended school.

[1] The data used in this paper were derived from the reports of the commissioner of education of the United States and of the state board of education of Massachusetts, from Butler's "Education in the United States," from articles by Dr. William T. Harris, commissioner of education of the United States, and from the Tennessee state reports.

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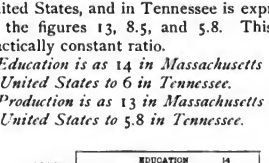
To illustrate, the average school period in 1898–99 of each inhabitant of the United States was 4.4 years; of Massachusetts, 7 years; of Tennessee, a little less than 3 years. The annual production of the whole United States in 1899 was $170 per capita a year, or about 55 cents a day. The production of Massachusetts in 1899 was $260 for each man, woman, and child, or 85 cents a day. The most favorable figures make the total annual production of the people of Tennessee in 1899 less than $116 a year, or 38 cents a day, for each inhabitant.

Another way to express it is to say that the average family of five in Tennessee must live on $580 a year, counting everything produced on the farm and in the home, as well as sales and money wages; while the same family in Massachusetts has $1300 a year to spend, and the average family of the United States has $850.

Put these facts together, and we at once see their tremendous significance. The proportion between the school period in Massachusetts, the school period in the whole United States, and the school period in Tennessee is expressed by the figures 14, 8.8, and 6. The proportion between the productive capacity of each person in Massachusetts, in the whole United States, and in Tennessee is expressed by the figures 13, 8.5, and 5.8. This is a practically constant ratio.

Education is as 14 *in Massachusetts to* 8.8 *in United States to* 6 *in Tennessee.*

Production is as 13 *in Massachusetts to* 8.5 *in United States to* 5.8 *in Tennessee.*



This is not a mere coincidence in the case of Massachusetts, the United States, and Tennessee; it is the law the world over. The productivity of a people is everywhere proportional to their education, — to their intellectual, physical, and moral training. It is not the natural resources, the climate, the soils, and the minerals; it is not even the race, much as these things count in production; but it is education which above everything else determines the wealth-earning power of a people.

The population of Massachusetts is 2,805,346; of Tennessee is 2,020,616. They have the same number of children to educate. The enrollment and the average daily attendance of their public schools in 1898–99 were as follows: —

	Enrollment	Average Attendance
Massachusetts	471,977	360,317
Tennessee	499,845	352,734

Massachusetts taught school 188 days in the year, and her enrolled pupils attended an average of 143.5 days. Tennessee taught school only 89 days, and her enrolled pupils attended only 62.8 days.

Massachusetts expended for all purposes on her public schools in 1898–99, $13,889,838, which was $38.55 per pupil and $5.07 per capita of her population. Tennessee expended for her public schools in the same year, $1,628,313, which is $4.62 per pupil and only 83 cents per capita of population. The average expenditure for all the states of the Union is $19 per pupil and $2.67 per capita of the population of the entire country.

The power of education in production may be presented again in this concrete way: —

Massachusetts spent in 1898–99 $12,261,525 more upon her public schools than Tennessee. But see what a return she gets. Each one of the 2,805,346 citizens of Massachusetts — men, women, and infants — has, as we have said, a productive capacity of $260 a year, against $170 a year for the average inhabitant of the whole United States and $116 a year for the average inhabitant of Tennessee. The inhabitant of Massachusetts has thus an excess of $90 a year over the average inhabitant of the United States, and $144 a year over the average inhabitant of Tennessee. This means that the people of Massachusetts earned in that year $252,487,140 more than the same number of average people of the United States and $403,969,824 more than the same number of people in Tennessee. Twelve million dollars invested in superior education yield 400 millions a year.

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THE RISE OF THE RUSSIAN JEW

THE GHETTO BOY AND HIS FIRST TRAINING — HOW HE BECOMES AMERICANIZED — HIS NAME AT LAST AMONG THOSE MILES OF BROADWAY SIGNS WHERE THERE IS HARDLY AN ENGLISH NAME — THE RICH BANKER OF ANOTHER CLASS

BY

HUTCHINS HAPGOOD

PHOTOGRAPHICALLY ILLUSTRATED BY MANDELKERN

THE shrewd-faced boy with the melancholy eyes that one sees everywhere in the streets of New York's Ghetto, or in the Ghetto of any other American city, occupies a peculiar position in our society. If we could penetrate into his soul, we should see a mixture of almost unprecedented hope and of excitement on the one hand, and of doubt, confusion, and self-distrust on the other hand. Led in many contrary directions, the fact that he does not grow to be an intellectual anarchist is due to his serious racial characteristics.

Three groups of influences are at work on him, — the orthodox Jewish, the American, and the Socialist; and he experiences them in this order. He has either been born in America of Russian, Austrian, or Roumanian Jewish parents, or has immigrated with them as a very young child. The first of the three forces at work on his character is religious and moral; the second is practical, diversified, non-religious; and the third is reactionary from the other two and hostile to them.

If he was born in this country or in Russia, — most east-side Jews came from Russia, — the earliest years of the son of orthodox parents are passed in a family atmosphere where the whole duty of man is to observe the religious law. He learns to say his prayers every morning and evening, either at home or at the synagogue. At the age of five, he is taken to the Hebrew private school, the "chaider," where, in Russia, he spends most of his time from early morning till late at night. The ceremony accompanying his first appearance in "chaider" is significant of his whole orthodox life. Wrapped in a "talith," or praying shawl, he is carried by his father to the school and received there by the "melamed," or teacher, who holds out before him the Hebrew alphabet on a large chart. Before beginning to learn the first letter of the alphabet he is given a taste of honey, and when he declares it to be sweet, he is told that the study of the Holy Law, upon which he is about to enter, is sweeter than honey. Shortly afterwards a coin falls from the ceiling, and the boy is told that an angel dropped it from heaven as a reward for learning the first lesson.

In the Russian "chaider" the boy proceeds with a further study of the alphabet, then



Photographed by Mandelkern

BEGINNING A MERCANTILE CAREER.

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the prayer-book, the Pentateuch, other portions of the Bible, and begins with the complicated Talmud. Confirmed at thirteen years of age, he enters the Hebrew academy and continues the study of the Talmud, to which, if he is successful, he will devote himself all his life. For his parents desire him to be a rabbi, or Talmudical scholar, and to give himself entirely to a learned interpretation of the sweet law.



Photographed by Mandelbern.

THE GHETTO BOY.

The boy's life at home, in Russia, conforms with the religious education received at the "chaider." On Friday afternoon, when the Sabbath begins, and on Saturday morning, when it continues, he is free from school, and on Friday does errands for his mother or helps in the preparation for the Sabbath. In the afternoon he commonly bathes, dresses freshly in Sabbath raiment, and goes to "chaider" in the evening. Returning from school, he finds his mother and sisters dressed in their best, ready to "greet the Sabbath." The lights are glowing in the candlesticks, the father enters with "Good Shabbas" on his lips, and is received by the grandparents, who occupy the seats of honor. They bless him and the children in turn. The father then chants the hymn of praise and salutation; a cup of wine or cider is passed from one to the other; every one washes his hands, arranges himself at table in the order of age, the youngest sitting at the father's right hand. After the meal they sing a song dedicated to the Sabbath, and say grace. The same ceremony is repeated on Saturday morning, and afterwards the children are examined in what they have learned of the Holy Law during the week. The numerous religious holidays are observed in the same way, with special ceremonies of their own in addition. The important thing to notice is that the boy's whole training and education bears directly on ethics and religion, in the study of which he is encouraged to spend his whole life.

In a simple Jewish community in Russia, where the "chaider" is the only school, where the government is hostile and the Jews are therefore thrown back upon their own customs, the boy loves his religion, he loves and honors his parents, his highest ambition is to be a great scholar — to know the Bible and all its glorious meaning, to know the Talmudical comments upon it, and to serve God. Above every one else he respects the aged, the Hebrew scholar, the rabbi, the teacher. The "law" outweighs all else in value. Abraham and Moses, David and Solomon, the prophet Elijah, are the kind of great men to whom his imagination soars.

But in America, even before he begins to go to our public schools, the little Jewish boy finds himself in contact with a new world which stands in violent contrast with the orthodox environment of his first few years. Indefinitely, at the beginning, from his playmates in the streets, from his older brother or sister, he picks up a little English, a little American slang, hears older boys boast of prize-fighter Bernstein, and learns vaguely to feel that there is a strange and fascinating life on the street. At this tender age he may even begin to black boots, gamble in pennies, and be filled with a "wild surmise" about American dollars.

With his entrance into the public school the little fellow runs plump against a system of education and a set of influences which are at total variance with those traditional to his race and with his home life. The religious element is entirely lacking. The educational system of the public schools is heterogeneous and worldly. The boy becomes acquainted in the school reader with fragments of writings on all subjects, with a little mathematics, a little history. His

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CONFIRMATION

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instruction in the interests of a liberal non-sectarianism is entirely secular. English becomes his most familiar language. He achieves a growing comprehension and sympathy with the independent, free, rather sceptical spirit of the American boy; he rapidly imbibes ideas about social equality, contempt for authority, and tends to prefer Sherlock Holmes to Abraham as a hero.

The orthodox Jewish influences, still at work upon him, are rapidly weakened. He grows to look upon the ceremonial life at home as rather ridiculous. His old parents, who speak no English, he regards as "greenhorns." English becomes his habitual tongue, even at home, and Yiddish he begins to forget. He still goes to "chaider," but under conditions exceedingly different from those obtaining in Russia, where there are no public schools, and where the boy is consequently shut up within the confines of Hebraic education. In America, the "chaider" assumes a position entirely subordinate. Compelled by law to go to the American public school, the boy can attend "chaider" only before the public school opens in the morning or after it closes in the afternoon. At such times the Hebrew teacher, who dresses in a long black coat and outlandish tall hat, and commonly speaks no English, visits the boy at home, or the boy goes to a neighboring "chaider."

The boy's contempt for the "chaider's" teaching comes the more easily because he rarely understands his Hebrew lessons to the full. His real language is English, the teacher's is commonly the Yiddish jargon, and the language to be learned is Hebrew. The problem before him is consequently the strangely difficult one of learning Hebrew, a tongue unknown to him, through a translation into Yiddish, a language of growing unfamiliarity, which, on account of its poor dialectic character, is an inadequate vehicle of thought.

The orthodox parents begin to see that the boy, in order to "get along" in the New World, must receive a Gentile training. Instead of hoping to make a rabbi of him, they reluctantly consent to his becoming an American business man, or, still better, an American doctor or lawyer. The Hebrew teacher, less convinced of the usefulness and importance of his work, is in this country more simply commercial and less disinterested than abroad; a man generally, too, of less scholarship as well as of less devotion.

The growing sense of superiority on the part of the boy to the Hebraic part of his environment extends itself soon to the home. He learns to feel that he is greatly superior to his parents. In the struggle between the two sets of influences, that of the home becomes less and less effective. He runs away from the supper table to join his gang on the Bowery, where he is quick to pick up the very latest slang; where his talent for caricature is developed often at the expense of his parents, his race, and all "foreigners"; for he is an American, he is "the people," and like his glorious countrymen in general, he is quick to ridicule the stranger. He laughs at the foreign Jew with as much heartiness as at the "dago"; for he feels that he himself is almost as remote from the one as from the other.

"Why don't you say your evening prayer, my son?" asks his mother, in Yiddish.

"Ah, what yer givin' us!" replies, in English, the little American-Israelite as he makes a bee-line for the street.

The boys not only talk together of picnics, of the crimes of which they read in American newspapers, of prize-fights, of budding business propositions, but they gradually quit going to synagogue, give up "chaider" promptly when they are thirteen years old, avoid the Yiddish theatres, seek the up-town places of amusement, dress in the latest American fashion, and have a keen eye for the right thing in neckties. They even refuse sometimes to be present at supper on Friday evenings. Then, indeed, the sway of the old people is broken.

"Amerikane Kinder, Amerikane Kinder!" wails the old father, shaking his head. The trend of things is indeed too strong for the old man of the eternal Talmud and ceremony.

An important circumstance in helping to determine the boy's attitude toward his father is the tendency to reverse the ordinary and normal educational and economical relations existing between father and sons. In Russia the father gives the son an education and supports him until his marriage, and often afterward, until the young man is able to take care

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BLESSING THE WINE.

Photographed by Mandelkern.

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"CHAIDER."

of his wife and children. The father is, therefore, the head of the house in reality. But in the New World the boy contributes very early to the family's support. The father is, in this country, less able to make an economical place for himself than is the son. The little fellow sells papers, blacks boots, and becomes a street merchant on a small scale. He speaks English, and his parents do not. There is a tendency for the father to respect the son.

There is many a huge building on Broadway which is the external sign (with the Hebrew name of the tenant emblazoned on some extended surface) of the energy and independence of some ignorant little Russian Jew, the son of a push-cart peddler or sweat-shop worker, who began his business career on the sidewalks, continued it by peddling in New Jersey or on Long Island until he could open a small basement store on Hester Street, ending perhaps as a rich merchant on Broadway. The little fellow who starts out on this laborious climb is a model of industry and temperance. His only recreation, outside of business, which for him is a pleasure in itself, is to indulge in some simple pastime which generally is calculated to teach him some-



THE "MELAMED" AND HIS PUPIL.

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thing. On Friday or Saturday afternoon he is likely, for instance, to take a long walk to the park, where he is seen keenly inspecting the animals and perhaps boasting of his knowledge about them. He is an acquisitive little fellow, and seldom enjoys himself unless he feels that he is adding to his figurative or literal stock.

The cloak and umbrella business in New York is rapidly being almost monopolized by the Jews who began in the Ghetto; and they are also very large clothing merchants. Higher, however, than a considerable mer-



Photographed by Mandelkern

UNIVERSITY SETTLEMENT YOUTHS.

chant in the world of business the little Ghetto boy, born in a patriarchal Jewish home, has not yet attained. The Jews who as bankers, brokers, and speculators on Wall Street control millions never have been Ghetto Jews. They came from Germany, where conditions are very different from what they are in Russia, Galicia, and Roumania, and where, through the comparatively liberal education of a secular character which they were able to obtain, they were already beginning to have a national life outside of the Jewish traditions. Then, too, these Jews who are now prominent in Wall Street, have been in this country much longer than their Russian brethren. They are frequently



Photographed by Mandelkern

A TYPE OF THE UNIVERSITY SETTLEMENT STUDENT.

the sons of Germans who in the last generation attained commercial rank. If they were born abroad, they came many years before the Russian immigration began and



Photographed by Mandelkern

BLESSING THE CANDLES.

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before the American Ghetto existed, and have consequently become thoroughly identified with American life. Some of them began, indeed, as peddlers on a very small scale, travelled, as was more the habit with them then than now, all over the country, and rose by small degrees to the position of great financial operators. But they became so only by growing to feel very intimately the spirit of American enterprise which enables a man to carry on the boldest operation in a calm spirit.

To this boldness the son of the orthodox parents of our Ghetto has not yet attained. Coming from the cramped "quarter," with still a tinge of the patriarchal Jew in his blood, not yet thoroughly at home in the atmosphere of the American "plunger," he is a little hesitant, though very keen, in business affairs. The conservatism instilled in him by the pious old "greenhorn," his father, is a limitation to his American "nerve." He likes to deal in ponderable goods, to be able to touch and handle his wares, to have them before his eyes. In the next generation, when in business matters also he will be an instructive American, he will become as big a financial speculator as any of them, but at present he is pretty well content with his growing business on Broadway and his fine residence up-town.



Photographed by Mandelkern.

A "MELAMED," OR TEACHER

Although as compared with the American or German-Jew financier who does not turn a hair at the gain or loss of a million, and who in personal manner maintains a phlegmatic, Napoleonic calm which is almost the most impressive thing in the world to an ordinary man, the young fellow of the Ghetto seems a hesitant little "dickerer," yet, of course, he is a rising business man, and as compared to the world from which he has emerged, a very tremendous thing indeed. It is not strange, therefore, that this progressive merchant, while yet a child, acquires a self-sufficiency, an independence, and sometimes an arrogance which not unnaturally, at least in form, is extended even toward his parents.

If this boy were able entirely to forget his origin, to cast off the ethical and religious influences which are his birthright, there would be no serious struggle in his soul, and he would not represent a peculiar element in our society. He would be like any other practical, ambitious, rather worldly American boy. The struggle is strong because the boy's nature, at once religious and susceptible, is strongly appealed to by both the old and new. At the same time that he is keenly sensitive to the charm of his American environment with its practical and national opportunities, he has still a deep love for his race and the old things. He is aware and rather ashamed of the limitations of his parents. He feels that the trend and weight of things are against them, that they are in a minority, but yet in a real way the old people remain his conscience, the visible representatives of a moral and religious tradition by which the boy may regulate his inner life.

The attitude of such a boy toward his father and mother is sympathetically described by Dr. Blanstein, principal of the Educational Alliance: —

"Not knowing that I speak Yiddish, the boy often acts as interpreter between me and his exclusively Yiddish-speaking father and mother. He always shows a great fear that I should be ashamed of his parents and tries to show them in the best light. When he translates, he shows, in his manner, great affection and tenderness toward these people

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A SATURDAY EXAMINATION.

whom he feels he is protecting; he not merely turns their Yiddish into good English, but modifies the substance of what they say in order to make them appear presentable, less outlandish and queer. He also shows cleverness in translating for his parents what I say in English. When he finds that I can speak Yiddish and therefore can converse heart to heart with the old people, he is delighted. His face beams, and he expresses in every way that deep pleasure which a person takes in the satisfaction of honored protégés."

The third considerable influence in the life of the Ghetto boy is that of the socialists. I am inclined to think that this is the least important of the three in its effect on his character.

Socialism as it is agitated in the Jewish quarter consists in a wholesale rejection, often founded on a misunderstanding, of both American and Hebraic ideals. The socialists harp monotonously on the relations between capital and labor, the injustice of classes, and on that school of literature, the Russian, at the bottom of which there is a strongly anarchistic and reactionary impulse.

The natural effects on the boy are two: a tendency to look with distrust at the genuinely American life about him, and to reject the old implicit piety.

The ideal situation for this young Jew would be that where he could become an integral part of American life without losing the seriousness of nature developed by Hebraic tradition and education. At present he feels a conflict between these two influences: his youthful ardor and ambition lead him to prefer the progressive, if chaotic and uncentred, American life; but his conscience does not allow him entire peace in a situation which involves a chasm between him and his parents and their ideals. If he could find along the line of his more exciting interests — the American — something that would fill the deeper need of his nature, his problem would receive a happy solution.

At present, however, the powers that make for the desired synthesis of the old and the new are fragmentary and unimportant. They consist largely in more or less charitable institutions such as the University Settlement, the Educational Alliance, and those free Hebrew schools which are carried on with definite reference to the boy as an American citizen. The latter differ from the "chai-

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ders" in several respects. The important difference is that these schools are better organized, have better teachers, and have as a conscious end the supplementing of the boy's common school education. The attempt is to add to the boy's secular training an ethical and religious training through the intelligent study of the Bible. It is thought that an acquaintance with the old literature of the Jews is calculated to deepen and spiritualize the boy's nature.

The Educational Alliance is a still better organized and more intelligent institution, having much more the same purpose in view as the best Hebrew schools. Its avowed purpose is to combine the American and Hebrew elements, reconcile fathers and sons by making the former more American and the latter more Hebraic, and in that way improve the home life of the quarter. With the character of the University Settlement nearly everybody is familiar. It falls in line with Anglo-Saxon charitable institutions, forms classes, improves the condition of the poor, and acts as an ethical agent. But though such institutions may do a great deal of good, they are yet too fragmentary and external, are too little a vital growth from the conditions, to supply the demand for a serious life which at the same time shall be American.

But the Ghetto boy is making use of his heterogeneous opportunities with the greatest energy and ambition. The public schools are filled with little Jews; the night schools of the east side are practically used by no other race. City College, New York University, and Columbia University are graduating Russian Jews in numbers rapidly increasing. Many lawyers, indeed, children of patriarchal Jews, have very large practices already, and some of them belong to solid firms on Wall Street; although as to business and financial matters they have not yet attained to the most spectacular height. Then there are innumerable boys' debating clubs, ethical clubs, and literary clubs in the east side; altogether there is an excitement in ideas and an enthusiastic energy for acquiring knowledge which has an interesting analogy to the hopefulness and acquisitive desire of the early Renaissance. It is a mistake to think that the young Hebrew turns naturally to trade. He turns his energy to whatever offers the best opportunities for broader life and success. Other things besides business are open to him in this country, and he is improving his chance for the higher education as devotedly as he has improved his opportunities for success in business.



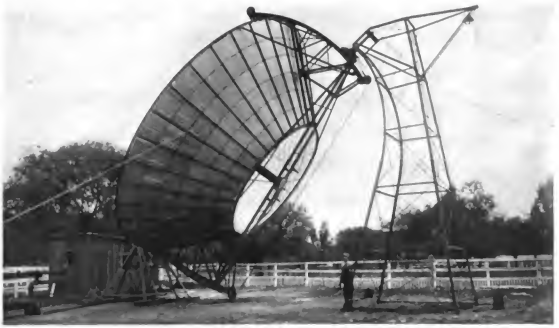
Photographed by Mandelkern

A SUCCESSFUL BROADWAY MERCHANT.

There are a small number of young Jews who have already attained a synthesis not lacking in the ideal. I know a young artist, a boy born in the Ghetto, who began his conscious American life with contempt for the old things, but who with growing culture has learned to perceive the beauty of the traditions and faith of his race. He puts into his paintings of the types of Hester Street an imaginative, almost religious, idealism, and his artistic sympathy seems to extend particularly to the old people. He is reconciled to the spirit of his father without ceasing to be an American. And there are many more.

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SIDE VIEW OF SOLAR MOTOR.



HARNESSING THE SUN

A SUCCESSFUL SOLAR MOTOR SET UP IN CALIFORNIA — IT PUMPS WATER, AND ITS POWER MAY BE USED TO WATER THE DESERT — POSSIBILITIES OF A REVOLUTION IN MOTIVE POWER

BY

F. B. MILLARD

WHY should we burn costly, hard-delved coal in power-houses, when we can hitch our trolley cars to the sun and have them propelled for the asking? But how to hitch them — that has been the problem with which scientific men have wrestled for years. Now it has been solved, and the principle of the invention, like the principle of all great inventions, is exceedingly simple. If you take a sun-glass and a toy-engine, and can get sufficient heat at the focal point of the sun's rays below the glass to make the water bubble in the tiny boiler, you will have steam and presently power. This has now been done by the new solar motor.

The motor is in successful operation, working a fifteen-horse-power engine, at the Ostrich Farm at Pasadena, Cal.; and it is used to pump water. It lifts fourteen hundred gallons a minute.

The solar motor may be likened to an enormous, open umbrella, with a part of the top cut off, and set at an angle to catch the sunshine on its many mirrors and to reflect it upon the long slim boiler, set in the centre like the handle of the umbrella.

From the boiler the steam is conducted in pipes to a compound engine operating a centrifugal pump. There is little manual work to be done in connection with the machine. To turn a crank and to clean it now and then is all that it requires. It is thirty-five feet from the uppermost part of the rim of the umbrella to the ground, which distance nearly represents the whole diameter of the circle. There are in the reflector eighteen hundred glass mirrors, each about three inches wide and two feet long. Supporting the upper part of the umbrella, which is heavily ribbed with steel, is a tall iron framework, like that set up for windmills, and under the bottom is an equatorial mounting, something like that used with large telescopes. The solar motor is automatically balanced, the weight resting on roller bearings, so that only a few pounds of hand pressure are required to turn it in any way that may be desired. When the operator

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THE TUBULAR BOILER
Reflector out of focus to permit of cleaning and oiling boiler.

wishes to get up steam, he turns a crank and swings the reflector into focus, guided by an indicator. When the focus is once obtained, the great umbrella, like a sunflower, automatically keeps its shining face towards the sun. Here, too, the inventors have learned a lesson from the astronomers, for a common clock is made to do duty as a regulator.

At first the morning dew is seen slowly to



INSIDE THE REFLECTOR
Showing part of the tubular boiler.

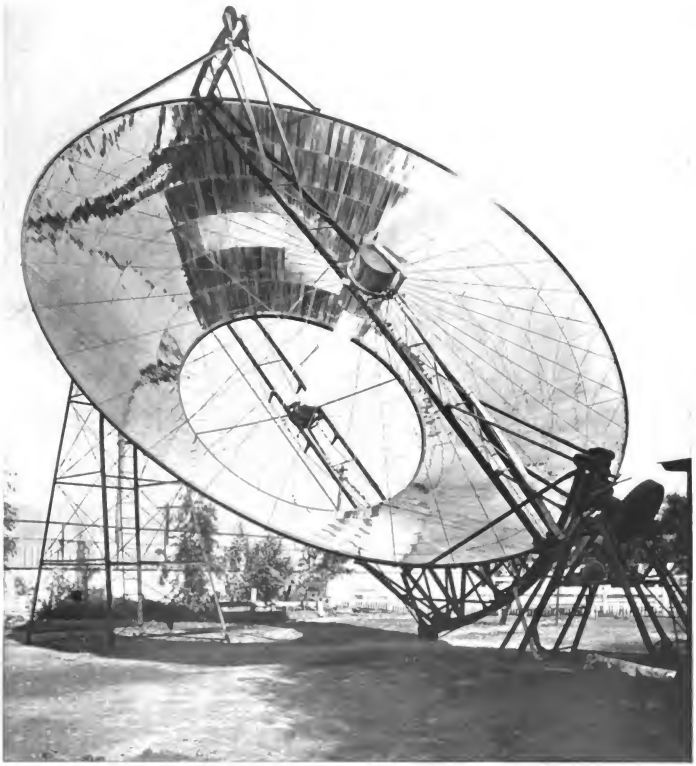
ascend in a wreath of vapor from the gigantic mouth. Then the bright glasses glitter in the sun, and the heat-lines begin to quiver inside the circle, the greatest commotion being about the long, black boiler, which, as the intensity of the focussed rays increases, begins to glisten, so that in any photograph taken of the machine, the boiler is shown almost as pure white. Within an hour of the time of turning the crank and getting the focus (if no clouds intervene to throw shadows into the reflector) there is a jet of steam from the escape valve. The engineer moves the throttle, there is a succession of hisses from the umbrella-handle, a "clank-clank-clankety-clank!" and the sun is drawing water in a way of which he little dreamed a few months ago.

Once started, the machine runs all day without any attention whatever. The man in charge may hoe his garden, or read his novel, or eat oranges, or go to sleep. The machine oils itself. The supply of water for the boiler is regulated automatically, as is also the steam pressure, and there can be no explosion. The motor can be left alone and will run until the sun gets so low that there is no more heat. Then it will stop, rest over night; and all that is needed to start it when the radiant energy again asserts itself is the twist of a couple of handles.

The machinery was made in Boston, and southern California, the land of almost perpetual sunshine, was selected as the best place to give the motor its first practical trial. The successful motor is the result of nearly ten years' experimental work and of a very considerable outlay of money. Device after device was made and rejected. A model was built and set up in Denver a year ago, and its feeble workings convinced the promoters of the plan that they were on the way to success.

It is now thought that solar motors will before long be seen all over the desert as thick as wind-mills in Holland and that they will make the desert to blossom as the rose—a phrase that literally represents the possibilities of the machine; for windmills will run only so long as the wind blows, and for weeks at a time on the desert there is no wind; but the sun shines nine days out of the ten upon the great, waste land, where oranges may be growing, lemons yellowing, and grapes purpling, under the glare of sun which, while

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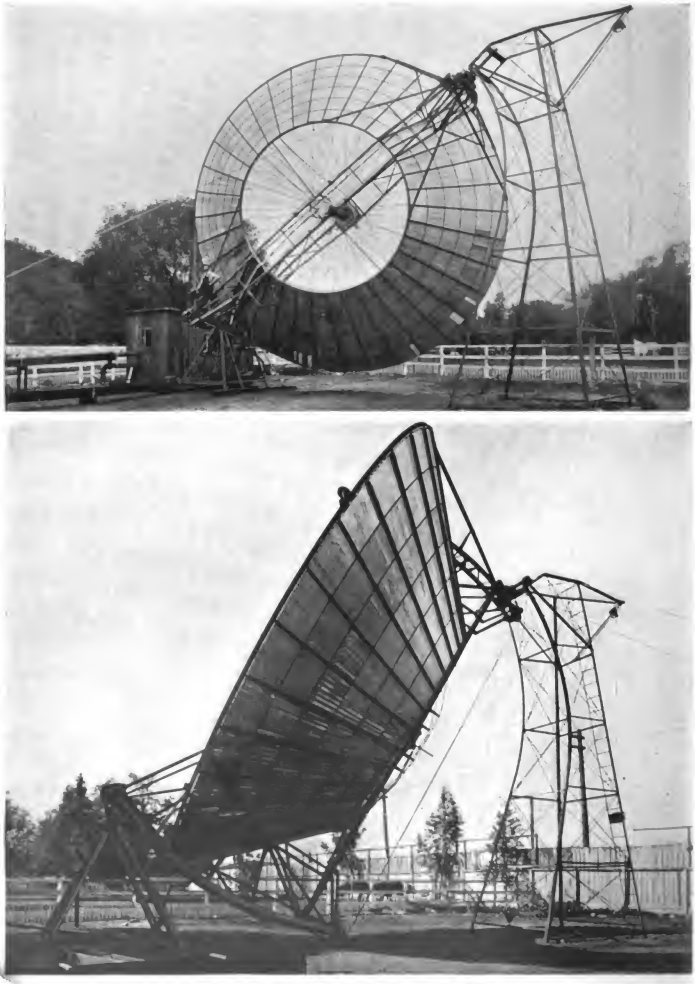


BLOWING OFF STEAM WITH A PRESSURE OF 210 LBS.

it ripens the fruits will also water and nourish them.

Cheap power means cheap homes in the arid regions of the Southwest — homes for millions of men where there are now only hundreds. Coal is exceedingly expensive, and there is little wood to be had. If the sun-motor will pump water, it will also grind grain and saw lumber and run electric cars. In Central California, in a section where there is a large stream of water available for supplying power, the promoters of an electric enter-

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BACK AND SIDE VIEWS OF THE REFLECTOR.

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prise are hesitating about the outlay of a large sum of money in building a dam and are thinking of using solar motors, because the initial expense would be only half the cost of the dam.

In any land of long sunlight there need be no stop over night of the machinery run by solar motors; for the storage of electric power by the machine is promised by engineers.

Of the many former and unsuccessful devices to utilize the sun's heat for power,—aside from the mere toys of tinkering inventors — Ericsson's is the most famous. The mind that modelled the *Monitor* gave years to this problem. But Ericsson's sun-motor was not successful. Other mechanically minded men tried vainly to trap sunbeams and make them work for a living, but they danced through all the meshes of the strange nets spread for them by eager hands. Professor S. P. Langley of the Smithsonian Institution wrote sixteen years ago:—

"Future ages may see the seat of empire transferred to regions of the earth now barren and desolated under intense solar heat — countries which, for that very cause, will not improbably become the seat of mechanical and thence political power. Whoever finds the way to make industrially useful the vast sun-power now wasted on the deserts of North Africa or the shores of the Red Sea, will effect a greater change in men's affairs than any conqueror in history has done; for he will once more people those waste places with the life that swarmed there in the best days of Carthage and of old Egypt, but under another civilization, where man shall no longer worship the sun as a God, but shall have learned to make it his servant."

THE ENGLISHMAN'S INSULARITY

THE QUALITY THAT MADE GREAT BRITAIN GREAT BUT WHICH UNDER MODERN CONDITIONS IS PREVENTING GROWTH — AN INTERESTING STUDY OF HIS COUNTRYMEN BY AN ENGLISH WRITER — THE NEED OF A NATIONAL AWAKENING — WILL ENGLAND LOSE HER COMMERCIAL SUPREMACY?

BY

T. SHARPER KNOWLSON

THERE was a time in the history of England when insularity was one of its chiefest blessings: a blessing which conspired with other circumstances to produce a sturdy type of character and to keep at a safe distance the dominating power of certain European forces. For many centuries English insularity has been a story of much gain and little loss; but since America began to take a large share in the world's work, the loss has been much more evident than the gain. Whilst the nations of Europe were dealing with that incriminating fact of geography which compelled them to have frontiers, England got far ahead of her competitors in the commercial race. But Europe became more cautious in matters of war; a trade era began to assert itself among continental peoples, with the result that the busy German has won a success that is now a proverb. Meanwhile the American had been sleeplessly active, and he is invading every market with success. This is the story of England's loss; and so little does insularity count as a benefit nowadays, that the American millionaire takes pity on the crowded nature of London streets, and undertakes to make locomotion more rapid and comfortable by the subterranean twopenny tube.

A COMMERCIAL PHARISAISM

But Englishmen are commercial Pharisees, and are blind to the changes that are taking place before their very eyes. They wear their phylacteries with complacent self-righteousness, and on them are written the traditions and the glories of the English people, the last item being a statement to the effect that the gross tonnage of the Empire's shipping is 14,261,254 tons, nearly one-half of the tonnage of the world. The fact is, English commerce has become a creed in which we

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are taught to believe, and not a struggle in which we must take a part; consequently, insularity, for so long the cause of England's progress, seems likely to become the cause of England's decline.

There can be no doubt that, as a whole, my countrymen do not realize the importance of the commercial war which every day is growing more serious. True, there are a few men who sound the note of alarm; and there are certain newspapers which are alive to all the dangers of foreign competition. For instance, Lord Rosebery is never weary of pointing out the need of superior technical and commercial training. Mr. Goschen, too, is a careful student of all modern commercial movements. We have papers like the *Daily Mail* which is alert to announce new facts respecting losses and gains in trade, and among weekly papers *Commercial Intelligence* makes a specialty of commercial maps, provides a list of tenders wanted for home and abroad, gives the latest consular news, and furthers the work of travellers.

Now all this is just as it should be, but it is not enough. It is not enough that a statesman should make a speech and a newspaper publish an article; what is needed is a national awakening. British consuls do their duty in an exemplary fashion, and urge traders to supply a cheaper class of goods, to pack them well, and to be content with a small order at first; they urge them to send travellers who are linguists and who will study a customer's wishes. But what if the British manufacturer is so incurably insular that he refuses to provide for a cheaper demand and declines to alter his method of packing because it paid well in his father's time and ought to pay well now? What if he insists upon larger orders or none at all and continues to send travellers who cannot conduct business in any language but their own? The leaders of thought and education may make their speeches, and the newspapers may publish their articles, and the consuls issue their reports, and the chambers of commerce hold their deliberations: the fact remains, England, as a whole, is asleep.

GOVERNMENTAL INACTIVITY

Will the Government do anything? Let us see. It has sent commercial *attachés* to Paris, Berlin, Madrid, Constantinople, and Vienna. "As an experiment," it has decided to appoint commercial agents in Russia, Switzerland, and America. This sounds like an unwilling concession to serious facts relating to the possible decay of British trade; perhaps it signifies nothing of the kind, and merely suggests the hopeless incompetency of some of our Government departments. This conclusion is strengthened by the existence of a Board of Trade Intelligence Office, located at 50 Parliament Street, S.W. Apparently there is but one room, about ten feet square, and the staff consists of a chief and two clerks. Seemingly, the Government finds political emergencies too engrossing to allow much margin for the furtherance of commerce.

How can a national awakening be brought about? I am sure it will never spring from within. Such a supposition is altogether against the English character. You may deluge an Englishman with statistics about competition in trade, but he will smile through it all. Some years ago Mr. Ernest Williams published his celebrated book "Made in Germany." It opened the eyes of a good many people and made them think, but it may well be questioned whether it accomplished any actual change in commercial habits; in fact, the chief effect seems to have been to deepen the national aversion to the Germans.

BAD RESULTS OF NATIONAL SUCCESS

This stiff-necked attitude is the worst feature of insularity, but it is insularity's inevitable product. Psychologically, we are a people with old ideas and associations. We carry a load of history and precedent on our backs and cannot rid ourselves of the burden. We were obliged to invent an original locomotive because it had nothing with which comparison was possible; but when it came to the building of a railway carriage, we felt compelled to construct a stage-coach and alter nothing but the wheels. Age in the nation is like age in the individual — it precludes the acceptance of new ideas and prefers to fulfil an ordered routine. Inertia, complacency, self-satisfaction, — call it what you will, — overtakes every old and especially every successful people. England has prospered and lies back in calm assurance that all is well. Tell

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one of her citizens that we depend upon others for our wheat supply, and he will say that most of it is carried in British bottoms and that the British fleet protects the Empire's commerce in every part of the globe. He either cannot or will not conceive of a state of things where a failure in foreign crops, or a crippling of the fleet in time of war, might place our tight little island in great straits.

The Britisher has been cradled in notions of superiority, and vulnerability is an idea that does not often occur to him. He has had no one to look up to as a model: in war he has been the bravest of the brave, and in the arts of commerce he has carried all before him; so that in war and in peace he took a first place with the ease that is born of intelligence and energy. He can produce figures which are astounding; from out his little isle he digs more coal than is mined in the vast territories of the United States, the United States grows the world's cotton, but exports less than Great Britain.

There is, however, another side to the picture, and it would be an insult to British intelligence to say that Englishmen are ignorant of the facts. They know what the frequency of strikes and the baneful influences of trades unions are doing; it is no news to them that in woollen goods, in iron and steel, in machinery and many other things, we are in danger of becoming vanquished; what I complain of is not the lack of knowledge — though that could be vastly improved; it is the lack of *feeling:* foreign competition has not yet been taken to heart.

LACK OF SERIOUSNESS THE DIFFICULTY

When, therefore, will the national awakening come? We have seen that it cannot come from within, so tightly are we gripped by the hand of insularity. It will come from without when England has been beaten. The Britisher is a sportsman pure and simple. He likes a day's shooting, — a week's much better, — and when he returns to business he continues to live in the same spirit. He plays to win, for the sport there is in it. A writer in *The Fortnightly Review* for January said: "Our weakness, as compared with our greatest competitors is our different view of work. The German, with his thorough intellectual interest in his own line, takes more pleasure in work than in play. The American goes with irresistible vigor into both work and play. But the average Briton thinks far more of sport than of his job, and thinks far too much of sport while at his job!" Even the British soldier is not exempt. Officers were anxious to go to South Africa in order to see the "fun," and as soon as a battle is over Tommy Atkins likes a game at football; or, if he be too tired, he prefers to rest until the next "sport" among the kopjes shall begin. This lack of seriousness is at the bottom of all the mischief, and is in itself a product of our prosperous insularity.

But when the nation is aroused — what then? The conditions of a complex civilization are so subtle in their operation that one hesitates to hazard a prophecy. The creation of a protective tariff on imports; and the banding together of the colonies in special trade relations with the mother country may do something to stop the progress of decline, but my fear is that commercial supremacy once lost is lost forever.

A FRANK FORECAST

To sum up: The outlook to a candid mind is depressing. An Englishman is usually candid, but if candor means a gloomy outlook, it offends his sense of enjoyment, and spoils the possibility of "sport." We have the strange paradox that "the most cosmopolitan of geographical peoples is the least cosmopolitan in spirit." The atmosphere now quivers with many uncertainties as between nation and nation; but one thing is certain, namely, that if Great Britain continues in her commercial slumbers, the sceptre of supremacy will pass to the New World in the West.

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THE AMERICAN TRADE INVASION OF ENGLAND

THE SALE OF AMERICAN WARES AND ENGLISH METHODS — SPECIFIC INSTANCES OF SUCCESS AND OF FAILURE — SOME INTERESTING DIFFICULTIES — THE NECESSITY OF THE DRUMMER

BY

CHALMERS ROBERTS

AMERICAN CORRESPONDENT IN LONDON OF THE WORLD'S WORK

NO spirit of prophecy is necessary to foretell from the present state of public opinion in England that the first great political battle of the new reign will be waged over the methods for protecting the home market from outside competitors, and the much larger schemes of securing the trade of the colonies by means of governmental aid and restrictions. This contest will come about both through public need and private ambition.

The present general outcry for new life and new methods in the trade world seems, to any one who has studied English politics, like but another special providence for the advancement of Mr. Chamberlain. For a long time his chief imperial aim has been the consolidation of the empire both by sentimental and material bonds. The one has been proven to exist in an almost unhoped for measure in the part which the colonies have borne in the South African war. And as soon as the difficulties arising therefrom are cleared away, the Birmingham statesman will be prepared to inaugurate the contest of his life for some sort of imperial *zollverein*. By it he will win or lose the great end of his ambition — the premiership. That it will be a battle royal only those who know how firmly free-trade ideas are embedded in the conservative British mind can appreciate. As necessity is ever an overwhelming ally against theory, there is every chance of the victory to the protectionists.

But whatever the outcome, the whole nation cannot fail to be more thoroughly aroused to danger than it has been by the present discussions. Manufacturers will finally understand the need of closer coöperation with employees, of a more democratic bearing in their relations with those under them. Trade unionists are sure to awaken to the injury done by their short-sighted restrictions on labor and its output. And, most important of all, it will take just such a noisy movement as a great general election to arouse the British workman from his present suicidal indifference. Therefore, whoever wins in the fight, and whether the whole British empire is to be hedged in with a protective wall or not, there will surely be an end to the pleasant path by which the foreign competitor now has free access to the markets of Greater Britain. This is the one great reason why those American industries desiring a foreign outlet should make hay in the present sunshine. They should especially beware of a dangerous disposition to neglect a small but promising foreign trade, built up with difficulty, the moment the demand at home is large enough to consume their output. Negligence of this sort has caused several repetitions of the first battle for recognition, sure to be more costly than the temporary gain at home. The American producer must understand that a foreign trade is like any other, and cannot be put down and taken up at will. He seems determined to enter the markets of the world, — in fact, he has already effected an entrance of no mean proportions. But he has much to learn in regard to political, racial, and trade conditions. He would be surprised to know how even political questions at home affect this foreign ambition of his.

In the discussion of the trusts in American politics of late years, little has been said about

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the distinct advantage which these trade combinations enjoy when any branch of industry seeks a foreign outlet. The innumerable difficulties which beset the way of the individual manufacturer, anxious for a market abroad, fall much more easily before the strength which this great combination is able to wield.

OUR CONSULAR SERVICE

There have also been frequent attacks upon the United States consular system, which should be given close attention by the producer. For the consul is his direct representative in the foreign market. Many Americans, with dainty social inclinations, have returned from European sight-seeing much horrified at what they call the low social standing of our consuls. They have been quite carried away by the dignity of almost diplomatic exclusiveness, which surrounded the British Consul, for instance. Our consul, they will tell you, is a most ordinary person, who, perhaps, lives over a shop, and who associates mainly with the tradespeople. Most of the people who join in this cry do not really know the difference between a legation and a consulate, and will nearly always speak of a consul as a diplomat. There are many reasons for a permanent diplomatic service and for a more generous appropriation for its support. But whenever the consular service begins to believe that it is too good to associate with tradespeople, its usefulness will end. A consul is primarily a trade representative, and all his better abilities should be devoted to furthering his country's commerce. The slightest investigation into foreign opinion on the subject will show that other governments are calling upon their consuls to imitate ours. The old charge that the American consul was only a sort of "public drummer" becomes an honor when one sees what results he has achieved. In the discussion now filling the English press on the entrance of American industries into the British market, one finds frequent praise for the American consul. For instance, the consul at Birmingham, Mr. Marshal Halstead, has given so much study to the furthering of American trade in England, and has made so many apt reports on the subject, that he is constantly referred to. Indeed, he lacks little, if anything, of being an ideal consul. There is a good story from Naples which tells how the British Consul in evening clothes and glittering decorations once passed his American colleague on the quay almost mobbed by a swarm of immigrants. "How on earth can you afford to do such dirty work?" asked the Englishman. The reply was, "These people are to be American citizens one day, and I am determined that only fit ones shall have the chance. That's why I am here."

Other political conditions affecting trade are the practical uselessness of international patent laws, and the necessity for full knowledge as to the company and liability laws of the country where business is to be done. The former never prevent the most open copying of foreign inventions, and in some countries, notably Germany, there is scarcely a pretension of their observance. There is also need for some foreign credit agreement. American business men will miss reports like Dun's and Bradstreet's and at the same time be expected to extend liberal credit. Consuls are prohibited by law, and wisely, from reporting on the financial standing of any citizen of the country to which they are accredited.

THE AMERICAN SALESMAN IN ENGLAND

The most prominent trait of character with which the American trader in Great Britain has to deal is indolence. To any one at all accustomed to the rush and hurry of American life, the inordinately slow methods here prevalent are exasperating almost to distraction. Undoubtedly the climate has much to do with it. But a rock-bound conservatism has much to do in preventing possible improvement. The press is constantly defending the leisurely life of Englishmen and thanks God that they are not afflicted with the American demon, restlessness. Yet in the same papers, in adjoining columns, will be laments over the success of the Americans in securing British trade.

The American salesman must remember that he has only from four to six hours a day in which to do business, and as a rule it will take him six to accomplish what might be done at home in one. Only recently one of the leading evening papers had a serious leader protesting against the extension of

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underground railways. It said that hurry was not everything in life, that half the pleasure of living in London resulted from the absence of rush and turmoil, and that if the "tube" builders were allowed a free hand, they would soon convert the city into a shrieking American pandemonium.

DEMAND FOR HIGH-CLASS GOODS

On the other hand, with this great national fault go many corollary virtues. Trade in Great Britain must be built up on merit, and this is something which many American exporters have yet to learn. It is quality alone which wins here, never cheapness, and seldom novelty. Customers once obtained are very constant. No petty cutting in prices will lure them from a known and tried producer. The American manufacture to win its way must be distinctly better than its British rival, for it has to overcome, besides, a sort of dogged patriotism. The word "imported" has none of the sweet sound to British ears that it has so long enjoyed in America. None of your new-fangled American models for Mr. John Bull, if you please. It takes him a long time to decide that the Yankee can make a better article than he can, and while the sharp commercial traveller is busy telling over all the virtues of the new pattern, honest old John is busy looking for its vices. The virtues he thinks can take care of themselves. The vices are going to make the trouble.

One incident that came to my knowledge will illustrate this. An American commercial traveller had built up quite a trade in a certain kind of fountain pens, a sort of middle-class article more or less out of date in the United States. For this very reason it was once impossible to fill an order for five hundred pens from one of his oldest and best customers. Rather than lose the custom, he arranged that a much better and more modern pen should be shipped in place of the kind ordered. Judge of his surprise when the dealer refused to accept them. "They are much better, sir, in every way, and it is only by a great reduction in the price that you get them at the cost of the old ones." "That may all be true," said Mr. Bull, "but they are not the kind I ordered nor what my customers ask for. I sell what they want, and am not in the educating business." The pens had to be sent back to America.

THINGS AMERICANS MUST AVOID

It has been very plainly demonstrated that nothing so injures American business in England as undue noise made about any particular success. English patriotism more or less resents American bragging. And all who are engaged in the trade agree in declaring that the less said about what is done in certain lines, the better. This is a lesson we have to learn from the English themselves. They have always preserved much secrecy and caution in their foreign trade. Silence prevents animosities and leaves rivals in ignorance. So first of all in making his appearance as a world trader Brother Jonathan must restrain his talent for boasting.

It may be easily learned of any of the industries which are doing a good English business that the most successful method of introducing goods into the English market is to have some British firm, that deals in similar goods, handle the merchandise, while an absolutely independent agent, accountable only to his chiefs at home, builds up the trade. This method is rather costly, for, of course, the British agents require a commission on all goods handled, and the salary and the expenses of the agent have to be paid. But a good British custom is well worth all the additional cost. Generally the cost in some measure may be added to the price of the goods. Any industry which thrives by cheapness had better stay at home. It has been very difficult to teach Americans seeking an English outlet that undue cutting of prices is not only unnecessary but dangerous. If you sell your product for two shillings less than the similar English article is sold you may make the sale. If you offer it at two pounds less, honest John at once concludes that it is but a Yankee gimcrack and is worthless. Even the famous American three dollar shoes, which stare at you from shop windows here, are sold for 15s. 6d., nearly four dollars.

It is almost absolutely necessary that the American firm have its own man here. The foreign agent cannot be trusted. Either he will take your agency in order to secure the market for his own product while holding back the sales of yours, or he will take advan-

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tage of loose patent laws, particularly on the continent, to copy your article in nearly every particular and flood the market against you. As our foreign trade is yet in its infancy, it may be called the age of the drummer, for the drummer is but the nurse of an infant traffic. As soon as it is firmly established his usefulness disappears, just as it has done so noticeably in the United States during the last few years. The jobber is all very well where there is a steady demand, but he will never create new demands or discover new customers.

Judge Albion W. Tourgee, United States Consul at Bordeaux, puts the matter plainly when he says: —

"Our foreign trade is a new thing; but it is in the hearts of the American people, especially the manufacturers, that it must be pushed. Thousands of them are determined to get a foothold on foreign soil. But most of them hunt at long range. They send advertising matter printed in English to a consul in a city where not one in a thousand reads English, and perhaps none of the consumers they wish to reach; ask the consul a score of impossible questions and request a list of addresses of dealers in their line. They get the addresses desired, send to each dealer more advertising matter in English and perhaps write to them, giving them a full history of their establishments and how they wish to sell f.o.b. at New York, cash at ten days, sight draft with B/L attached. The would-be exporter fails to get a foreign trade simply because he deserves to fail. Trade once secured may be held without the drummer, but the travelling salesman is the only agency that can secure and develop a profitable foreign trade. This is the secret of the immense increase in German commerce since 1875. Every country of the world and all the islands of the seas are full of the imperturbable, good-natured, and persistent German drummers."

THINGS AMERICANS MUST KNOW

The American exporter must acquaint himself with all of chance of traffic which may favor his ends. The great consumption in England of coke from the Southern states grew out of the fact that it was a very acceptable ballast for the cotton-laden ships which come directly from Southern cottonfields to the English factories. In many markets he has a freight advantage over his English rivals. He must also be ready to meet all manner of criticisms of his wares and be sure that the wares are able to withstand them. The American built locomotives now in use on certain British railways are under a constant fire of criticism.

Ignorance of local laws in the country of export often causes disastrous results. For instance, an American gun factory recently began what seemed a very auspicious export trade to England. But they were entirely ignorant of the severe test which the law requires all guns on the English market to undergo. Nearly all of their guns exploded under test, and the incident did not aid the trade in American guns generally.

All manner of petty opposition must be expected, especially on the continent. For instance, the German bicycle makers, after failing in their attempt to get a prohibitive tariff on American bicycles, solemnly agreed to boycott all trade journals carrying American bicycle advertisements. All manner of pushing business methods must be met in competition. There are British trade lecturers now setting out to all the corners of the earth. In their efforts to compete with the United States for the trade of Jamaica a commercial expedition was organized by the Bristol Chamber of Commerce in January in which one hundred cases of merchandise samples were sent out. The Germans open sample rooms all over the world. There are no limits to the means which may be utilized to further commerce. The American Consul at Aix-la-Chapelle, Germany, reports that the exhibition of a famous American circus there had a very impressive effect upon the people, who were most ignorant as to America generally, and suggests that if drummers would follow the circus they would do a rousing trade.

Brother Jonathan seems to realize even less than his anxious foreign rivals what a threatening figure in the markets of the world he is. Far-seeing English traders are fast making investments in American enterprises. This may mean to political clairvoyants a future Anglo-American trade alliance. Already continental seers foresee it. For instance, M. Paul Leroy-Beaulieu, in the *Vienna Tageblatt*, recently advocated with much force a continental trade alliance against England and America. If England and the United States should make a firm, it would be a great partnership, for one is as truly the best trader in the world as the other is far and away the best manufacturer.

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J. PIERPONT MORGAN

HIS CONSTRUCTIVE MIND AND METHOD — HIS WAYS OF WORK — HIS MANNER WITH HIS ASSOCIATES — PERSONAL INCIDENTS AND EVIDENCES OF HIS GENEROSITY

BY

LINDSAY DENISON

IF the best-informed men of affairs in the United States to-day were asked to name the most masterful personality in the country, perhaps in the world, most of them would name Mr. J. Pierpont Morgan. Within a month, by his strong hand, two of the greatest transactions in the history of practical affairs have been consummated, — the great railroad consolidation which gives one "community of interest" control of great systems from ocean to ocean and of trans-Pacific traffic as well, and, greatest of all, the great steel combination.

In its last analysis the making of great combinations, like other successful pieces of work, leads back to strong personalities, — in finance to personalities that stand for safety and for development. No amount of money, by the sheer force of money, could bring about such results. They imply a confidence in character — most of all in the quality of building up great properties. Mr. Morgan has achieved preëminence not simply as a man in command of great wealth, but as a man of the most extraordinary constructive and conserving ability.

The right of a man to think in peace during his business hours is not recognized by the public. He who would enjoy the luxury of thought in a place where there are many men gathered together must either hire guards or defend himself most vigorously. Mr. J. Pierpont Morgan is the most prominent of American financiers to-day, perhaps because he thinks steadily and hard while he is in his workshop. He does not leave to subordinates the duty of defending him from intruders; he defends himself. Consequently he is sometimes thought to be curt, to say the least. This superficial and unfair judgment has been made not only of Mr. Morgan's personality, but of his methods of business also. He is not sensitive to criticism; but he has very wisely said that much of the time that is spent in criticising his manners might more profitably be used in studious imitation of his habits of thought.

Not long ago a young man was sent by his employer to Mr. Morgan to make a verbal inquiry. When he entered the big counting-room, he saw that Mr. Morgan was not at his desk. He asked the nearest clerk where he was. The clerk pointed to a distant door. The young man went at once into the room, and there he saw Mr. Morgan in an armchair before a snapping wood fire. There were many clerks in the room working over ledgers and sheets of figures. He congratulated himself that he had found the banker at leisure. He stood beside Mr. Morgan, waiting respectfully to be spoken to. Mr. Morgan did not speak. The young man grew uneasy. He began to feel as a man feels in a nightmare. He made up his mind to count ten, and if Mr. Morgan had not then spoken, to break the awful silence himself. The banker seemed to be tracing a curved line on the arm of the chair. He held his finger at the end of the line as one marks the place in a book, when he is interrupted, and he looked up and asked gruffly:—

"How did you get in here?"

"I — I — I walked in, sir," stammered the young man. He could think of nothing else to say.

"Walk out!" roared Mr. Morgan. Then he turned his attention again to the line on the arm of the chair.

For many years there was no outpost at the door of Mr. Morgan's office; and the present defence there against interruption is not formidable. There are few men of great business concerns who are more easily approached. It has apparently been Mr. Morgan's idea that the constant running in of

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office boys with the cards of callers is as troublesome as the entrance of the callers themselves. He is capable of ridding himself of the unwelcome or the untimely visitor as quickly as he could return an answer through an office boy. Moreover, should the visitor be one with whom he desires to talk, the go-between wastes the time of them both. Again, the "guard" may misjudge a man by his looks. Mr. Morgan is too shrewd and too democratic to make that mistake. Any man who has any real reason for seeing him finds him easily accessible.

Mr. Morgan believes in doing himself all the work that he can do without wasting time; but he does nothing that one of his partners or subordinates can do without his supervision. For instance, he himself meets visitors, high or low; but he seldom, if ever, signs a check with his own hand.

From the moment he reaches his office in the morning — he is nearly always in his office in time to hear the stock ticker signal "good morning" — until he leaves at five o'clock in the afternoon, he might well seem to a casual observer to be the least occupied man in his office. He walks about among the desks, glancing over his clerks' shoulders at the books. He skims through the pages of a railroad report or a bond prospectus or a lawyer's draft of a railroad reorganization plan. When the outer offices are crowded with messengers and delivery clerks, and the place is in an uproar with their running to and fro, the head of the house strides among them, apparently in an idle mood. He questions one and another to learn from whom they come and what word they bring; he even shoves them along bodily to accelerate their pace, and claps his hands together cheerily to make them jump. If a friend comes in at such a time, Mr. Morgan will call to him gleefully through the hubbub, saying: —

"How is this? Are you doing things at this rate over in your office?"

Visible evidence that the house is active and energetic is a tonic to him.

But all his apparent aimlessness of supervision is part of the method of the man. He knows every set of books on the shelves as well as the men who have charge of them. He can turn at once to the record of any stage of any transaction past or present in which the house has had a part. He is probably the only man under its roof who knows everything that is going on there.

It was after some weeks of just such apparently aimless wandering about his offices that Mr. Morgan called his partners together and told them that he had bought the New York and Northern Railroad, and had sold it to the New York Central and Hudson River Railroad Company at a profit that would seem to almost any firm in Wall Street satisfactory pay for a year's labor. Up to that moment not one of his partners had known of the transaction. But nearly every one of them had done something, at Mr. Morgan's direction, toward bringing the matter to a successful conclusion. They had known that some business of importance had absorbed him even more than usual. One perhaps had bought a block of stock; another perhaps had executed a masking movement on the floor of the stock exchange, and another had prepared an opinion on some point in railroad law; but all these things had been done as in the regular progress of the firm's business. The shaping of these tasks into the consummation of the particular business in hand had been the work of Mr. Morgan himself.

Such a method does not imply distrust of his subordinates and colleagues; nothing could be further from the truth. To a man who knows exactly what he wants to do, and exactly how he wants it done, nothing can be more satisfactory than the knowledge that his orders are being carried out literally by men whose responsibility is limited to their own part of the work, who are not affected in what they do by any misgivings or hopes about the culminating achievement; he wants no suggestions and he wants no criticisms; he knows. It is hardly necessary to say that his partners have no quarrel with his plans nor with the tasks that are assigned to them.

Sometimes several great reorganizations have been brought about almost simultaneously, with one or more partners as a general of each separate movement, but all under the supervision of the chief who deals in railroads as small merchants buy smallwares. Many a time he buys cheaply things which are unattractive and unsalable; he proves their soundness and sells them again dearly, some-

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times to the very customers from whom they were bought.

From the days in 1869, when he drove the buccaneers, Gould and Fisk, from the disabled Albany and Susquehanna Railroad and made it again a self-sustaining property, Mr. Morgan has been a rebuilder and never a wrecker. When his hand has been laid upon a railroad useless expenses have dropped from the accounts, better train service for shippers of freight and for passengers has been arranged, the danger of accidents has been lessened, and useless competition with other railroads has been eliminated. Of late it has been as a peacemaker between quarrelsome neighbors that he has been prominently working. It has always been one of his methods of restoring and promoting prosperity whether in railroad or in other interests. When the West Shore Railroad was committing slow suicide and was doing hurt to the New York Central at the same time, it was Mr. Morgan who brought them under one management and thus restored them both to health. On more than one occasion when the fight for ready money on the floor of the stock exchange had sent the rate of interest up to an abnormally high point, Mr. Morgan has restored healthy conditions by announcing that all the ready money that he had could be borrowed at a normal rate of interest. The European acquaintance and financial influence which he inherited from his father and extended by his own ability and honesty again and again have made it possible for him to secure money from abroad in great sums at critical times. European investors in American securities think themselves protected against loss only when they have taken insurance against Mr. Morgan's death. This fact tells the story of a masterful personality and of the influence that it exerts in world-wide finance.

This same fact indicates also the constructive work of the man — that his plans always make for building-up, never for tearing down. His severest critics have never said that he would permit or countenance the wreck of a property for the sake of reorganizing it.

Three times at least has Mr. Morgan come to the financial rescue of the United States Government. Once a pack of little men was busy making themselves rich by draining the country of gold. Mr. Morgan enabled the administration to stop the enfeebling process; but because he profited by the transaction he was as roundly abused as if he had joined hands with those whom he circumvented.

His attitude toward such abuse was most clearly manifested when the Senate sent a committee to investigate his conduct. He met them in a parlor of the Fifth Avenue Hotel in New York, and for hours, on a hot day in June, 1896, explained every detail of his transactions with the Secretary of the Treasury. There was no item of the whole affair up to the time when the government relinquished its title to the bonds that he did not patiently lay bare before them. Only once in this part of the investigation did he show any disposition to be short in his answers; and that was when one of the inquisitors tried to force him to admit that gold could be transferred between America and Europe by the trans-Atlantic cable. But when he was asked to tell the committee what profit his banking house had made by the sale of the bonds after the government had parted with title to them, he firmly declined to tell.

"That is a matter, gentlemen," said he, "which concerns me and my house, and which has nothing whatever to do with the treasury of the United States or with any officer of it."

Mr. Morgan's replies to inquiries about his right to employ his wealth as he pleases have always shown similar independence. He is sure that he is right; if others think that he is wrong, then they are people whose opinions are not worth consideration. It is a comforting doctrine and one not without its justification.

When Mr. Morgan walks down the steps of his bank building in the afternoon, he usually leaves his office behind him. He is said to be as impatient with those who try to carry business affairs to him at other times as he is with those who bring other affairs than business into his office. His friends know him as a man of the most generous impulses and of tactful thoughtfulness in carrying them out. Consider, for instance, his gift of a million dollars for the building of a hospital in New York's Eastside. It was necessary in notifying the trustees of the hospital of a gift so enormous that he should inform them of

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MR. J. PIERPONT MORGAN.

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the conditions under which they were to receive the money. He wrote: "This gift is made subject to two conditions: first, that some provision be made for an adequate endowment to meet the running expenses of the hospital, and, second, that all the plans shall be satisfactory to Dr. James Markoe." Dr. Markoe is Mr. Morgan's family physician. Every man who knows the great organizer knows of many generosities great and small of which no one else knows except himself and the giver.

Mr. Morgan is not from the ranks; he was born to the purple, as it were. He inherited vast financial possessions and responsibilities, but very early he displayed the wonderful power for organization that has marked his career. It is almost impossible to exaggerate the power of a man like this. His word can sway the market; the connection of his name with enterprise spells stability and means success. He is a business assurance company in himself; a guarantee association lives in his very name. No wonder then that such a man's personal character reflects him, and with Mr. Morgan the individual is as interesting as his accomplishments. His force and leadership show themselves in his dealings with his friends and followers, his thoroughness in his pastimes and his philanthropy. He brooks no interference in anything he does; it is all "off his own bat."

Whether his left hand knows what his right hand gives, it might be hard to state; but he certainly is chary in allowing his generosity to become public. Although beyond doubt he has given away $5,000,000 in the last ten years, there is not a monument self-erected to his generosity, his name is not connected with a single gift. It is part of the game he plays, the unknown strings that run to his fingers; they all mean power in a certain way. Yet, with all this capacity for direction, it is necessary to have competent machinery, and it is here also that Mr. Morgan has displayed his generalship. His judgment of men has stood him in such good stead, that he has gathered those about him who can do his bidding and who question not their orders. If he was a man who had to worry over detail, or, in fact, if he worried at all, he would have had to stop long ago, for it is the nervous part of a man's mechanism that first succumbs. He has worn other men's machinery out, perhaps, or other men have worn out their own, better speaking; but so far he has stood the test.

Some years ago at a dinner the late Colonel Auchmuty sat beside Mr. Morgan at the table. Somehow the talk drifted to industrial education, and the Colonel stated his belief in the possibilities of trade schools in New York. He spoke of a plan of his for the erection of a building wherein young men could learn trades shut to them by the operation of social labor societies and the abuse of labor power and apprentice systems. He mentioned the probable outright cost of such an undertaking. After the dinner, while the gentlemen lingered over their cigars, Mr. Morgan turned to the Colonel:—

"What you have said is most interesting," he remarked. "I have thought it over. Go ahead. Get your plans and your property. I'll do it. But do not bother me until the thing is ready and completed."

And so the Colonel got his plans and got his property, and three years went by before everything was ready, and all this time not one word had he spoken to the man who had nodded his head. No one knew, not even those closest to the project, who it was that was behind it. The incidental expenses had been carried on by the Colonel himself, who was a man of means. But, as we have said, the day came, and the Colonel went down to the corner of Broad and Wall streets the first time in connection with the business. His card secured him an immediate audience with Mr. Morgan. Some people might have been nervous. Often men have said such things and forgotten. It is very much better to have them in black and white.

"About the trade-school project—" the Colonel began.

"Oh yes," replied Mr. Morgan, and he tapped a bell. "We will see how we stand. . . . Bring the statement and account of Colonel Auchmuty's Industrial Trade School," said Mr. Morgan to the clerk, and there it was, the full amount, with interest at six per cent from the day on which he had made his verbal contract.

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THE HEAD OF THE GREAT STEEL COMPANY

AT TWELVE A STAGE-DRIVING FARMER'S BOY—AT THIRTY-NINE THE PRESIDENT OF THE NEW BILLION-DOLLAR STEEL CORPORATION—THE STORY OF HIS RAPID RISE—HIS GENUINENESS AND HIS GREAT CAPACITY FOR WORK

BY

ARTHUR GOODRICH

BACK in the mid-seventies, on almost any day when there was mail or a stray passenger to go, a rickety old stage might have been heard creaking down from the little town of Loretto, Penn., to the railroad station at Cresson and back, with a freckled-faced boy of about twelve on the driver's seat, — a newcomer to the quaint little mountain town. Up in "the city" — for Pittsburg is "the city" in all that Allegheny country — there is a quiet, busy man who has just become the official head of the greatest consolidation of money power in history, — a billion of dollars and more. The freckled boy — could he jump the quarter century — would scarcely know the multi-millionaire, unless he could drive him over those four hilly miles and some one should whisper him into awe of his passenger. But the man remembers the boy, and is proud of him. After all, does it matter much to either of them whether it is a stage-coach at Loretto or an octopus in the great world that they are controlling, so long as they hold the reins of power?

But to go back to the boy. Loretto, as every one knows, was the place where Demetrius Gallitzen, the prince-priest, kin to the present ruling house in Russia, brought, over a hundred years ago, the Catholic faith to what was then an unknown country, and the friars at St. Francis's College still carry on the work he began. To them the boy went for his education, and learned something of engineering, which he liked better than anything else they taught. At eighteen he had finished his course, and must earn a living. He could find no task exactly to his liking. His people were poor, and he took the first thing at hand, — a clerkship in a country grocery at Braddock. A few months had passed, when one day Mr. Jones, of the Edgar Thomson Steel Works, happened into the store, and the boy behind the counter surprised him by asking for a place. Mr. Jones thought a moment, and then asked: —

"Can you drive spikes?"

"I can drive anything," said the boy. Perhaps he was thinking of the weather-beaten stage at Loretto.

"At a dollar a day?"

"At any price."

And so he began. Six dollars a week was better than two and a half, his grocery store stipend, and it was an opportunity. In six months he was chief of the engineering corps with which he had begun work. Then it was that he ceased being "Charlie" and became Mr. Schwab. From that time his story is an exceedingly simple one, — as all great things are simple.

There were blast furnaces to be constructed, and he superintended the work. The rail-mill department must be enlarged: he enlarged it until it had the largest output in the world. Competition was close, there must be economy in production, and he made improvements which sent the Pittsburg product all over the world, and, with the late Captain W. R. Jones, developed the famous "metal mixer," which reduced costs to a minimum. In 1887 the Homestead Steel Works needed a new superintendent, and Mr. Schwab took the place. Reconstruction was needed, and he made the plant the largest of its sort in the world. The United States wanted armor

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MR. CHARLES M. SCHWAB,

President at thirty-nine years of the new Billion-Dollar Steel Corporation.

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plate, and after long experiment and over many obstacles, he gave it to them. Captain Jones died in 1889, and Mr. Schwab went back to the Edgar Thomson Works as superintendent, only to take control of both the Homestead and Thomson Works in 1892. Mr. Carnegie, finding, as he said, "a young genius," soon made him a partner. The young man had worked and learned and bided his time. In 1896 he became its president, being preferred by Mr. Carnegie to an older official, when it became a matter of choice; and now that Mr. Carnegie has stepped out and the greater steel company has been consummated, Mr. Schwab is its president and active head. And so the boy became the man merely because he had something to do and did it.

And because he is still doing it, as well. No man at the immense works is as busy as its head. Every morning early some portion of the works is inspected, and at ten he is in his office. Then the day moves on like clockwork. The mail which needs his personal attention is read and comprehended quickly — for quickness to see and decide is part of his secret. With his secretary he answers every communication that can expect reply. Every application for place is scrupulously attended to. Then there are conferences with heads of departments, and visits to various parts of the great plant during the remainder of the day. He personally inspects the entire works during each week. On Saturday the heads of the departments, most of them young men like himself, lunch with him socially. Absolutely no business conversation is allowed at the table. The meal over, conference begins, and suggestions and plans are discussed carefully. Every important word spoken is taken by stenographers present, to be referred to at will afterward. On Monday each of his superintendents lunches with his associates in the same way, and the results are likewise noted. Thus Mr. Schwab becomes the very centre of the pulsing body of men and machines. He knows both thoroughly and controls them — even while he is planning such stupendous things as billion-dollar combinations. And all the men associated with him — for Mr. Schwab has no one *under* him — respect and love him. He is their master, not by chance, but by superior knowledge and capacity — yet he is their fellow, for he has done all their tasks, realizes all their difficulties. He knows the mechanic's smallest tool as well as the company's bank account. And he gives each man his chance. A bit of system will illustrate. A new product is planned for. Expense is figured most accurately and closely by the heads in conference. The exact cost of production is settled upon. Then the matter is placed in the hands of the department which must make the article. It must produce at the figure decided upon. If the man in charge can cheapen its productive cost, he can pocket the difference. All that the company exacts of him is the specified article at the specified cost price.

He believes in work, just enough work, but no more. At night he tries to free himself from the day's cares. He enjoys his home; he has a fine library of books — not a library of fine books; the theatre attracts him; he loves music. From these he gets his rest and change. Often he will spend spare moments with his violin, and he still plays the piano, just as he used to for the friars at Loretto. His handsome home is hung with *chef d'œuvres* which he has chosen, not because they are well known, but because he likes them. He is sincere here as at his desk.

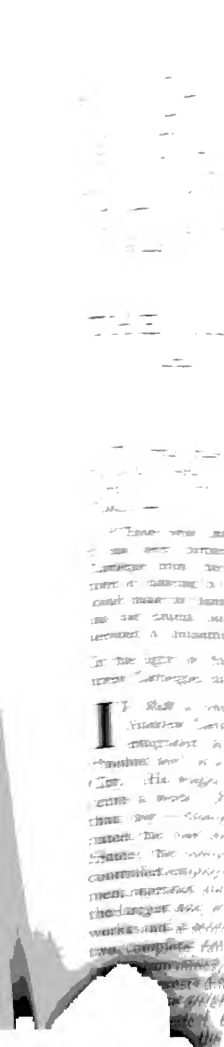
He is just the common man among men, keen, practical man of business, careful, though daring, man in the game of finance, but socially considering himself distinctly one of the people, — and this, too, is part of his secret. The man appears on the surface: a stocky figure dressed like the clean-cut, sensible business man that he is; a full, young-looking face, with a pair of keen brown eyes that take in everything at a glance; quick, tense walk, and frank, quiet speech. Gentle and courteous in manner, but with a distinct impression of decision and firmness in reserve.

Mr. Schwab is interested in the young men. He is a young man himself, — only thirty-nine, — and he understands them. He is very democratic — a thorough good fellow when business is out of the way. He is a clean man. He uses neither tobacco nor liquors to any extent. In fact, he doesn't have time. That is another of his secrets — that he has time only for the necessary things. He perhaps cannot be called an actively religious

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CARNEGIE

PUBLIC



[illegible] himself has [illegible] museums, and [illegible] more than a hundred [illegible] towns in the [illegible] England, and Scotland.

[illegible] statement calls [illegible] — unlike the case Mr. [illegible] of where he was [illegible] the battle of [illegible] there were the English and [illegible] Scots. When whipped, [illegible] the three to one — details [illegible] in motion, then, at the [illegible] the forty years that have [illegible] a transformation.

[illegible] was a master-weaver of [illegible] Scotland. When the newly [illegible] machinery drove him and his [illegible] of business, he and his [illegible] decided to follow [illegible] ss the ocean to America. [illegible] their native land as good Scots [illegible] be better for the boys," they [illegible] settled it. There is a fine [illegible] in the thought that steam machinery [illegible] Andrew Carnegie's liveli- [illegible] him overseas to Pittsburg! It is like the man in the Eastern tale whose enemy sent a jinn to destroy him, but who mastered the jinn instead and made it give him dominion over the whole world.

His very first step was to become acquainted with this new Force in the world of industry

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SKIBO CASTLE, MR. CARNEGIE'S HOME IN SCOTLAND.

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man, and yet he is building two churches, one for his mother at Loretto, and one for his wife's mother at Braddock; has given largely to the convent at Cresson, and has built a monument at Loretto to Prince Gallitzen. The amount of money he has donated to charities it would be difficult to estimate. He has given very widely and largely, but he does it quietly, just as he does everything else, with no ostentation. And his feelings regarding his gifts were voiced in a remark he made in a speech at the laying of the Braddock Church corner-stone.

"It is a small thing," he said, "for a man to sign his name to a check while there is money in the bank."

He is the type of the new American — keen for progress, mastering every detail, deciding and doing: a working man — and a gentleman.

THE MANY-SIDED ANDREW CARNEGIE
A CITIZEN OF THE REPUBLIC

BY

HENRY WYSHAM LANIER

[The true reason for the formation of the much-discussed "United States Steel Corporation" is thus stated by the New York *Times:* —

"Those who know the facts understand that it has been formed primarily to eliminate Mr. Carnegie from the trade. His competitors are tired of dancing to the music of his bagpipes, and could make no plans for their own protection until his vast capital and masterful intelligence were devoted to philanthropy rather than to business."

In the light of this a sketch of the man, Andrew Carnegie, has peculiar interest. — ED.]

IN 1848 a young Scot of eleven, named Andrew Carnegie, whose family had just emigrated to America, got a job as a "bobbin boy" in a cotton factory of Allegheny City. His wages were one dollar and twenty cents a week. For a quarter of a century that boy — changed to a man — has dominated the vast steel industry of the United States; the company which he created and controlled employed an army of fifty thousand men, operated nineteen separate furnaces of the largest size, with seven distinct great steel works and a score of finishing mills, owned two complete railroads, gas and coke companies, iron mines, docks, fleets, and other ramifying interests difficult even to catalogue, and has been the governing factor in the formation of the greatest corporation the world has ever known, the "billion dollar" United States Steel Corporation; he himself has presented libraries, elaborate museums, and other public institutions to more than a hundred and twenty cities and towns in the United States, England, and Scotland.

Even such an inadequate statement calls aloud for details — unlike the case Mr. Carnegie himself tells of, where he was describing to his nephews the battle of Bannockburn: "There were the English and there stood the Scotch. 'Which whipped, uncle?' cried the three at once — details unnecessary!" Let us glance, then, at the salient facts of the fifty years that have wrought so magical a transformation.

The elder Carnegie was a master-weaver of Dunfermline, Scotland. When the newly invented steam machinery drove him and his four hand-looms out of business, he and his wife with their two boys decided to follow some relatives across the ocean to America. They loved their native land as good Scots do; but "It will be better for the boys," they agreed, and that settled it. There is a fine humor in the thought that steam machinery took away young Andrew Carnegie's livelihood and drove him overseas to Pittsburg! It is like the man in the Eastern tale whose enemy sent a Jinn to destroy him, but who mastered the Jinn instead and made it give him dominion over the whole world.

His very first step was to become acquainted with this new Force in the world of industry

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SKIBO CASTLE, MR. CARNEGIE'S HOME IN SCOTLAND.

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which was overthrowing the old order of things and had incidentally ruined his family. He started to work in a steam cotton factory, tending bobbins. In less than a year he had been taken from the factory by one who had noticed the boy, and, in the new works, he learned how to run the engine and was promoted to this work, his salary of twenty cents a day not being increased, until he did clerical work for his employer as well — for he had some knowledge of arithmetic and wrote a good hand.

Here is his own account of his next step, when he became a messenger boy in the Ohio Telegraph Company: —

"I awake from a dream that has carried me away back to the days of early boyhood, the day when the little white-haired Scotch laddie, dressed in a blue jacket, walked with his father into the telegraph office at Pittsburg to undergo examination as applicant for position of messenger boy. . . . If you want an idea of heaven upon earth, imagine what it was to be taken from a dark cellar, where I fired the boiler from morning till night, and dropped into the office, where light shone from all sides, and around me books, papers, and pencils in profusion, and oh! the tick of those mysterious brass instruments on the desk annihilating space and standing with throbbing spirits ready to convey the intelligence to the world. This was my first glimpse of Paradise."

Shortly after this his father died, and at the age of fourteen the boy became the sole support of his mother and younger brother. But the weight on his shoulders was merely a spur to his ambition. He had not been in the office a month when he began to learn telegraphy, and a little friendly instruction soon had him spending all his spare minutes at the key. Characteristically, he was not content with the general custom of receiving by the tape, but doggedly mastered the clicking tongue of the instrument, until the supposed insecurity of taking messages by sound was found not to apply to him. He became an operator presently at a salary which seemed to him princely, though he augmented even this twenty-five dollars a month by copying telegraphic news for the daily papers.

There is almost a monotony about the story of such a man's career; everything he worked at he did better than his older and more experienced companions, — and his success shot upward like Jack's beanstalk. When the Pennsylvania Railroad needed an operator, "Andy" was chosen as a matter of course; and here his field of endeavor began to broaden rapidly. He relates graphically his first experience as a capitalist: —

"One day Mr. Scott [the superintendent of his division], who was the kindest of men and had taken a great fancy to me, asked if I had or could find five hundred dollars to invest, . . . I answered promptly: —

"'Yes, sir, I think I can.'

"'Very well,' he said, 'get it. A man has just died who owns ten shares in the Adams Express Company, which I want you to buy. It will cost you sixty dollars per share. . . .

"The matter was laid before the council of three that night, and the oracle spoke. 'Must be done. Mortgage our house. I will take the steamer in the morning for Ohio and see uncle, and ask him to arrange it. I am sure he can.' Of course her visit was successful — where did she ever fail?

"The money was procured; paid over; ten shares of Adams Express Company stock was mine, but no one knew our little home had been mortgaged 'to give our boy a start.'

"Adams Express then paid monthly dividends of one per cent, and the first check arrived. . . .

"The next day being Sunday, we boys — myself and my ever-constant companions — took our usual Sunday afternoon stroll in the country, and sitting down in the woods I showed them this check, saying, 'Eureka! We have found it.'

"Here was something new to all of us, for none of us had ever received anything but from toil. A return from capital was something strange and new."

As soon as he had learned all there was to know about train-despatching, he began to improve on the existing methods; he became a picked man; Colonel Scott selected him for his secretary; and before long, when Colonel Scott advanced to the vice-presidency of the road, the young man found himself superintendent of the Pennsylvania's Western Division. Again his opportunities multiplied — and Andrew Carnegie always had the eye of a hawk for an opportunity.

One day as the young superintendent was examining the line from a rear car, a tall, thin man stepped up to him, introduced himself as T. T. Woodruff, an inventor, and asked if he might show him an idea he had for a car to accommodate passengers at night. Out came a model from a green baize bag.

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"He had not spoken a minute before, like a flash, the whole range of the discovery burst upon me. 'Yes,' I said, 'that is something which this continent must have.'

"Upon my return I laid it before Mr. Scott, declaring that it was one of the inventions of the age. He remarked: 'You are enthusiastic, young man, but you may ask the inventor to come and let me see it.' I did so, and arrangements were made to build two trial cars, and run them on the Pennsylvania railroad. I was offered an interest in the venture, which, of course, I gladly accepted. . . .

"The notice came that my share of the first payment was $217.50 — as far beyond my means as if it had been millions. I was earning $50 per month, however, and had prospects, or at least I always felt that I had. I decided to call on the local banker and boldly ask him to advance the sum upon my interest in the affair. He put his hand on my shoulder and said: 'Why, of course, Andie, you are all right. Go ahead! Here is the money.' . . . The cars paid the subsequent payments from their earnings. I paid my first note from my savings, so much per month, and thus did I get my foot upon fortune's ladder. It is easy to climb after that. And thus came sleeping-cars into the world."[1]

Then came the Civil War, and Mr. Carnegie's constant friend, Colonel Scott, now became Assistant Secretary of War and placed him in charge of the military railroads and telegraph lines. His expert knowledge, indomitable courage, and energy made him invaluable. He is said to have been the third man wounded on the Union side (being injured while trying to free the track into Washington from obstructing wires); he did yeoman's service at Bull Run; and he overworked himself so pitilessly that his health broke down, and he was forced to go abroad for the winter.

But the man had not yet struck his true vocation. That came presently, when his attention was drawn to the wooden bridges universally used at that time. The Pennsylvania road was experimenting with a cast-iron bridge. Young Carnegie — he was still under twenty-five — grasped the situation with one of the sudden inspirations that characterize his forceful intellect. The day of the wooden bridge was past; the iron structure must supersede it. Some men might have stopped there. Andrew Carnegie went out and formed a company to build iron bridges.

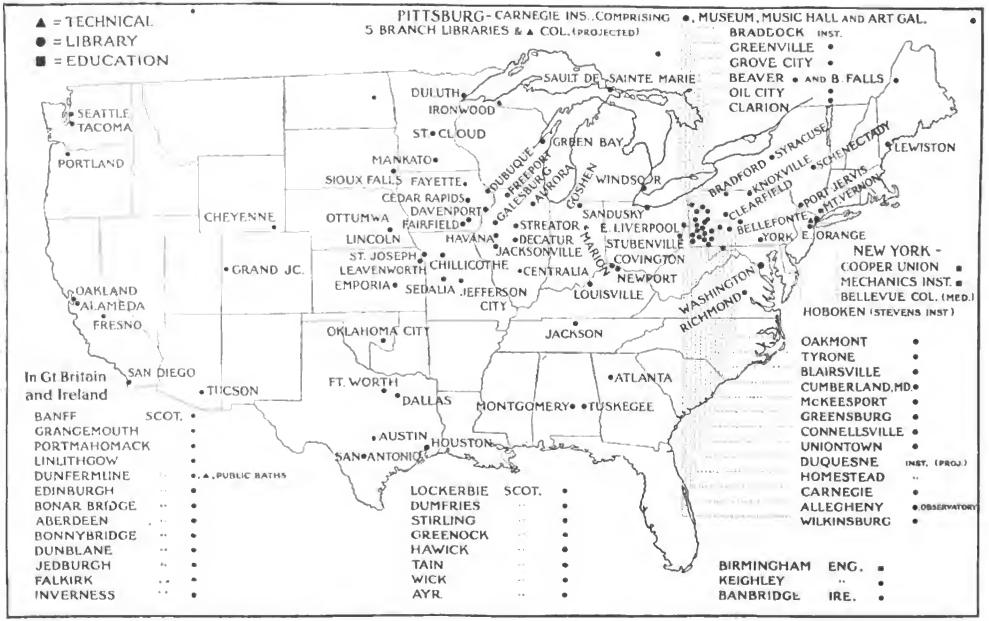
He had to raise twelve hundred and fifty dollars, but he had behind him the confidence of a Pittsburgh banker, and this proved easy. So the Keystone Bridge Works came into being.

From this time on the name of Andrew Carnegie is inseparably associated with that astonishing development of American iron and steel, which is among the modern wonders of the world. The Keystone Company built the first great bridge over the Ohio River; and the Union Iron Mills appeared in a few years as the natural outgrowth of this ramifying industry. Then, in 1868, Mr. Carnegie went to England. The Bessemer process of making steel rails had lately been perfected. The English railways were replacing their iron rails with steel ones as rapidly as possible. The English manufacturers were beginning to whisper to each other that they had firm grip of a gigantic revolutionizing Idea. The young Scotchman went back to Pittsburg, and before the Englishmen were well aware of his existence he laid the foundation of the steel works which have now finally beaten them at their own game.

The Iron-master was now fairly launched on his life work. He bought up the Homestead Works, his most formidable rival; by 1888 he held in the hollow of his hand seven huge plants, all within five miles of Pittsburg, which he proceeded to forge and amalgamate into a steel-armored giant, called the Carnegie Steel Company, the like of which the world had not before seen. At the beck and call of this Titan are fifty thousand men, and great machines which dash down with the force of a hundred tons, or descend so gently as to rest upon an egg-shell without cracking it. Other products of man's ingenuity tear the ore from the bowels of the earth; it goes to the Company's furnaces and converters on the Company's railroads; out flow millions of tons of iron and steel; electric cranes catch up great masses of two hundred tons each, carrying them hither and thither, arranging, assembling; rails and bridges and armor-plate and all the other myriad manifestations of iron's utility are hurried forth in endless procession to every part of the globe; vast coke and coal fields, mines, docks, ships, gas fields, — all these are merely incidental and casual stones in the rearing of this edifice; and it gives one a new comprehension of the mental

[1] From "Triumphant Democracy," by Mr. Carnegie.

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MAP SHOWING THE LIBRARIES ALREADY PRESENTED BY MR. CARNEGIE.

The cities of Great Britain to which such institutions have been given are listed beneath the map. The key at the top shows the different kinds of institutions founded.

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possibilities of one's fellows even to follow in the track of the mind which conceived and built up this overwhelming incarnation of modern industrialism.

Confronted with such a record of achievement as this, there is an instinctive demand for something which will help the hearer to grasp the personality of the genius behind it. One's mind cannot be satisfied until it has traced this lordly commerce-bearing river to its source. What was it in that Scotch boy which promised this mighty hive of industry as surely as the acorn promises the oak? Here is what he says himself:—

"Take away all our factories, our trade; our avenues of transportation; our money; leave me our organization, and in four years I shall have reëstablished myself."

There is something thrillingly dramatic about that. It voices the large poise and confidence of that type of genius which recognizes the limitations of any one human being, and consequently builds with men as the machinist builds with iron,—here a cog, a governor, a fly-wheel,—until he has solved the secret of perpetual motion, for he has brought into being a self-directing, self-supporting, self-renewing Organization, attracting to itself other human atoms, and merely gaining force and irresistible impetus as the years roll on.

Mr. Carnegie is fond of telling how he was once asked by the editor of a popular magazine for an article on Organization in Business.

"'Well,' said he, 'I think I could write that article. But I'm afraid the price I'd have to ask you would be too high.'

"'Oh! no,' said the delighted editor, with a vision of a magnificent 'feature' in an early number; 'I'm sure we could arrange that satisfactorily. Name your own figure.'

"'Well,' replied Mr. Carnegie, 'I could hardly afford to do it for less than five million dollars.' He smiled a little at sight of the editor's face, and then went on: 'No, I must withdraw that. What I should put into it has cost me much more than that, and of course you would not expect me to sell it to you at less than cost.'

"As the diplomatist puts it, 'The negotiations fell through.'"

Probably in his case this faculty is even more fundamental than the cardinal qualities of concentration, industry, intelligence, and thrift which he enumerates as the requisites for success. He could not be a mere "hewer of wood and drawer of water," with his capacity for attracting, holding, and developing men of exceptional ability in every department of business. His partners in his famous company numbered forty odd, all young men—"My indispensable and clever partners," he calls them, "some of whom had been my boy companions, I am delighted to say, some of the very boys who had met in the grove to wonder at the ten-dollar check."

Charles M. Schwab, head of the new United States Steel Corporation, is a typical example of the sort of men whom he has developed. Almost every year new names were added to this list; for although Mr. Carnegie "never helps a man," he founded his whole business upon the principle of making the man help himself, and then giving him the fullest chance to use and develop his abilities. No favoritism, and a share of the business for those who make the business, have been his watchwords. "My partners," he says, "are not only partners, but a band of devoted friends who never have a difference. I have never had to exercise my power, and of this I am very proud. Nothing is done without a unanimous vote, and I am not even a manager or director. I throw the responsibility upon others and allow them full swing."

A list of these partners and the businesses operated by the Carnegie Steel Company has some statistical interest. The men are:—

1. C. M. Schwab
2. Thomas Morrison
3. James Gayley
4. W. W. Blackburn
5. J. Ogden Hoffman
6. James Scott
7. W. E. Casey
8. L. T. Brown
9. S. J. Lindsay
10. H. E. Lener, Jr.
11. W. B. Dickson
12. John McLeod
13. A. R. Hunt
14. P. T. Berg
15. L. C. Phipps
16. W. H. Singer
17. D. M. Clemson
18. H. M. Moreland
19. John C. Fleming
20. George E. McCague
21. H. B. Bope
22. James E. Schwab
23. D. G. Kerr
24. E. F. Wood
25. G. D. Pallser
26. H. C. Case
27. C. W. Baker
28. A. C. Dinkey
29. Charles McCreery
30. Henry Phipps, Jr.
31. George Lauder
32. H. M. Curry
33. A. R. Peacock
34. F. L. F. Lovejoy
35. George H. Wightman
36. A. R. Whitney
37. Millard Hunsicker
38. George Megrew
39. H. C. Frick

A recent writer says:—

"Although Mr. Carnegie is not even a manager or director, his judgment is largely depended upon for the solution of questions that require sagacity

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and foresight, and he is frequently consulted by his fellow-partners, usually by telegraph, as he is no longer a resident of Pittsburg. Every day, in whatever part of the world he may be, a tabulated form carefully filled up, giving the product and details of every department of the works, is mailed to him, thus enabling him to keep thoroughly in touch with his business."

He shows the same admirable acumen, common sense, and fairness in dealing with his great body of employees. They too have been partners in the business, for in 1890 he introduced a sliding scale of payment by which a minimum was guaranteed, and every worker, no matter how humble his capacity, shared in the profits of prosperous times which he helped to produce.

His *vade mecum* is a big chest of drawers, each one devoted to papers on some special subject; for, like most men of his caliber, when he wants information he wants it at once. Says a writer who walked through his library and office at Skibo, speaking of this cabinet of papers:—

"Every drawer has its label—'The Carnegie Steel Company Reports,' 'paid bills,' 'correspondence about libraries,' 'grants, etc.,' 'other donations,' 'applications for aid,' 'miscellaneous,' 'social,' 'autograph letters to keep,' 'publication articles,' 'correspondence about yachts, launches, etc.,' 'Skibo estate,' 'Pittsburg Institute,' and so on, and so on. We looked from the little labels that told of all things done in order and nothing forgotten, and then to the Remington typewriter on the big writing table and the sheets of 'shorthand' lying before it; to the piles of books from 'The Gospel of Wealth' to 'An American Four-in-hand in Britain'; to the maps hanging on the wall and door back, with little flag pins to mark where the interest of the moment was centred. We almost grasped the secret of the making of a millionaire."

But right here is manifested the quality which makes Andrew Carnegie much larger and more rounded than a mere steel magnate or business genius. He has never been contented to sink himself entirely even in these tremendous enterprises which would seem to demand any man's last ounce of energy and concentration. Long before he became a rich man he showed his admirable balance in this respect. We have seen that he was a hard worker, but he never "ground" his mind and spirit to the exclusion of sport and pleasure. A friend who knew him as superintendent of the Pennsylvania's Western Division tells how he would have the conductors and brakemen gather information for him about the best fishing places along their routes. His visits of inspection were then so arranged that he could disappear for half a day or more at a time, and industriously whip these streams in search of trout and bass. His fondness for this sport has stuck by him all his life, and to it among other things he owes his acquaintance with his great friend Herbert Spencer. These two hardened anglers are accustomed, when they get together, to exchange "the ideas about the sort of fly most desirable to use in complicated cases, and to try to reason out the fish's mental attitude when it sees the fisherman's bait."

Sixty trips across the ocean, a journey around the world, and expeditions to the North Cape, China, Japan, and Mexico, are a record eloquent in themselves that he does not "work hard" in the sense in which most American men of affairs understand that phrase. His mail now averages from three hundred to six hundred letters a day, and while a capable private secretary and a yawning waste-paper basket absorb by far the larger portion of this mass of correspondence, he is nevertheless called upon to transact a huge amount of business. But he never permits the load to become an Old Man of the Sea. In the library of his home he attends to the necessary things in less time than most business men expend in travelling to and from their offices, and like Napoleon realizes that a fortnight answers more letters than he does.

Often he will go away all day to play golf, which he jokingly declares to be the only "serious business of life." A correspondent once went to Cumberland Island, his sister's home, on the Georgia coast, to interview him on some event of tremendous importance in the world of steel. He found him on the golf links, and fired at him, point blank, a long list of carefully prepared questions concerning this matter. Mr. Carnegie listened with patience till the newspaper man had finished, then he broke out:—

"Oh, I don't know anything about all that; but yesterday I broke my record. I just went around this course in five strokes less than ever before."

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A fellow-enthusiast at the game declares that Mr. Carnegie never tires of talking about it. He says: "I think it is a great pity that he had not begun golf in his earlier days,— a time when he was busy as a telegraph boy, doing the elemental things which have made him the man he is. Being a Scotchman, he has the keenest appreciation of any one who can play the ancient and royal game with skill." He once said to a friend who was playing golf with him, and who happened to make a long stroke off the tee, that for the joy of making one such drive the payment of $10,000 would be cheap. At Skibo he has golf links of his own and plays there with his friends, and in the long twilights the game lasts till dinner time, or even up to half-past eight o'clock. One day this winter he had made up his mind to devote the day to playing golf, but when the morning came, although it was bright and sharp, the thermometer was at six above zero. He was not to be debarred, however, from his anticipated round and spent the day at St. Andrew's, near Yonkers, on the links, though everything was frozen up tight. He came home bright and happy, saying it was one of the best golf days he ever had in his life!

Besides his golf and fishing and his well-known pastime of coaching, he walks and drives when in New York or at Skibo Castle, and he greatly enjoys steam yachting, calling a sea-voyage his panacea for every ill. He tells a story on himself in this connection. Leaving for Scotland later than usual one spring, he met old Captain Jones, superintendent of one of the Edgar Thomson plants, and began to express his sympathy that the latter should have to stay there in the hot weather with his many thousands of workmen.

"I'm very sorry you can't all go away, too," he declared. "Captain, you don't know the complete relief I get when outside of Sandy Hook I begin to breast the salt breezes."

"And oh, Lord!" replied the quick-witted captain, "think of the relief we all get."

Next to his fame as the "Steel King," Mr. Carnegie is undoubtedly most widely known through his remarkable list of public benefactions in the shape of libraries and museums. These number over a hundred, ranging from a $15,000 free village library to the magnificent Carnegie Institute at Pittsburg, the enlargements of which alone are to cost $3,600,000. Half a million people every year benefit by this Library with its 116,000 volumes, the splendid Orchestra and Art Gallery, and the Museum which is rapidly developing into an educational institution of the first rank. The map reproduced herewith gives for the first time a complete record of the libraries he has presented. As will be seen, the map of the United States is not nearly large enough to include the list, many a town and city in Great Britain owing such institutions to him. Mr. Carnegie has strongly stated his principles in regard to the use of surplus wealth: —

> "I have often said, and I now repeat, that the day is coming, and already we see its dawn, in which the man who dies possessed of millions of available wealth which was free and in his hands ready to be distributed will die disgraced. Of course, I do not mean that the man in business may not be stricken down with his capital in the business which cannot be withdrawn, for capital is the tool with which he works his wonders and produces more wealth. I refer to the man who dies possessed of millions of securities which are held simply for the interest they produce, that he may add to his hoard of miserable dollars."

He is no hypocrite; he believes that a man who makes a fortune has every right to enjoy its benefits to the fullest extent of which he is capable, but he has always asserted and lived up to the principle that "surplus wealth" is to be regarded "as a sacred trust, to be administered by its possessor, into whose hands it flows, for the highest good of the people." He is not a "philanthropist" in the accepted sense, for he holds that "of every thousand dollars indiscriminately given, nine hundred and fifty had better have been thrown into the sea," and as he says in "Wealth and its Uses": —

> "There is no use whatever, gentlemen, trying to help people who do not help themselves. You cannot push any one up a ladder unless he be willing to climb a little himself. When you stop boosting, he falls, to his injury."

So in the matter of giving libraries he follows a very definite rule. He never makes any stipulations that the library shall have a particular character; all he insists on is that

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FAC-SIMILE OF ENVELOPE CONTAINING LETTER REPRODUCED ON PAGE 627.

when he has founded it, *it shall be supported by the people* and shall be managed for the benefit of the whole community. His very first appearance in print was as a protestant against discrimination in reading facilities. A generous Colonel Anderson, of Allegheny, used to throw open his library to the working boys and men of the city. Young Carnegie was then telegraph operator, and upon finding himself debarred from the privileges through the donor's classification, he wrote such a burning and indignant appeal against the injustice of it that the restriction was removed and the library made free to all. He says somewhere: —

"He had only about four hundred volumes, but I doubt if ever so few books were put to better use. Only he who has longed, as I did, for Saturday to come that the spring of knowledge should be opened anew to him, can understand what Colonel Anderson did for me and others of the boys of Allegheny, several of whom have risen to eminence. Is it any wonder that I resolved that if surplus wealth ever came to me, I should use it in imitating my benefactor?"

Never has any resolve been carried to more complete fruition than this, and Mr. Carnegie has raised a memorial to his old benefactor in the library building which he has presented to Emporia College, Kansas, and is erecting a monument in his honor at Allegheny City park. A friend says: —

"The giving of libraries is his great pleasure and recreation. I have seen his eyes sparkle over a letter received from the people who have worked out the library problem in their town by his help and have got the institution running and doing much good. His pleasure in actually seeing the good that a library has accomplished through the efforts of others added to the original gift made by him, is only equalled by making a good drive on the golf links."

Of course, in the large daily mail already referred to, library letters are most numerous, and if people realized how many impracticable, indirect, and foolish letters on this subject were received, they would see the importance of telling in a clear and businesslike way what is needed and why the gift should be bestowed.

Mr. Carnegie is too good a business man simply to present money *en masse*. The usual procedure, after the money has been promised, is to have the plans made. The builders' estimates are prepared, and these having been approved by the town, are sent to Mr. Carnegie, who is very prompt in issuing instructions to honor the drafts of the town to pay for the building as it progresses. This does away with any confusion in connection with the funds and the successful completion of the enterprise.

Mr. Carnegie's great fondness for music has diverted a portion of this stream of benefaction: he has quietly presented organs to one church after another, until now the number is perhaps three hundred. He often says he will be responsible for all the organs say, but would hesitate to endorse the preachers without limitations. Mr. Carnegie is fond of pointing out that theology and religion are different things — one being only the work of man.

His flood of mail has already been alluded to. Amid the infinitely varied begging schemes, "crank" communications, and letters upon every subject under heaven, there are often very amusing specimens. One day recently there came an epistle from a poor woman in the West, who enclosed five dollars for him to invest for her, while another per-

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son sent ten, asking that it should be put to some use which would repay the owner handsomely. One rather extraordinary envelope, addressed to "M. Carnegie, Scotland, America," is fac-similed with its contents herewith, and the following, which is written under a business letter-head — "August J. Z.——, Dealer in a Little of Everything" (in a far-off state), has contributed to the pleasure of its recipient:—

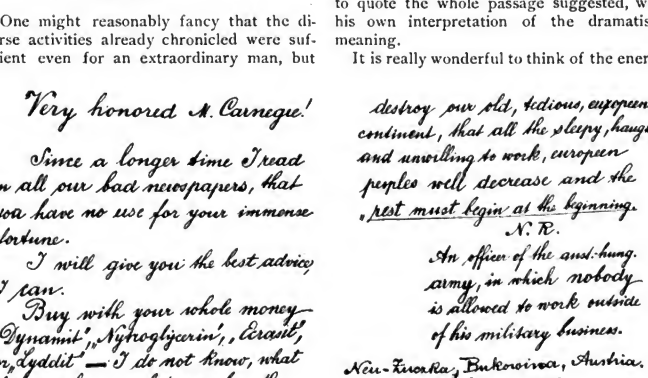
Mr. ANDREW CARNEGIE,
New York, N.Y.

Honorable Sir,— Please find enclosed express receipt for 1 Box Pecans shipped you, prepaid, which Mr. Carnegie do please accept from us, with our compliments, and hope and Trust you will accept this small present from us, who wish you a merry, merry Christmas and a happy new Year and long life is our sincere wishes. From a large family of your esteemed friends.

Aug. J. Z——, Father, 40 yrs.; Francis Z——, Mother, 35 yrs.; J. L. Z——, Son, 17 yrs.; L. J. Z——, Son, 16 yrs.; P. Z——, Daughter, 14 yrs.; L. Z——, Daughter, 12 yrs.; F. Z——, Daughter, 10 yrs.; E. Z——, Daughter, 8 yrs.; Aug. Z——, Son, 6 yrs.; B. Z——, Son, 5 yrs.; S. Z——, Son, 3 yrs.; O. Z——, Son, 10 months.

One might reasonably fancy that the diverse activities already chronicled were sufficient even for an extraordinary man, but Mr. Carnegie has made himself in addition an enviable reputation as a clear thinker and a forceful writer and speaker. His first volumes, "Notes of a Trip Round the World" (1879) and "Our Coaching Trip" (1882), were originally printed for private circulation only, but the demand for them proved so great that they were subsequently published regularly — after the author had been forced to give away fifteen hundred copies of the latter work by the incessant requests for it. His "Triumphant Democracy" came out in 1886, reaching a circulation of forty thousand copies in the first two years, and this volume, with his many later pamphlets and magazine articles, have amply proved his wide reading, sound reasoning, and ability to hit hard. He is thoroughly democratic, and believes in the United States and its future with a fervor which has often inspired him to eloquence. Always an omnivorous reader and with a natural taste for the enduring literature of all ages, he is particularly devoted to Shakspere. A reading of some part of a play of Shakspere is almost a daily pleasure, and like most Shakspere enthusiasts, he is forever being reminded of some passage by the most casual incident; and again, like enthusiasts, he likes to quote the whole passage suggested, with his own interpretation of the dramatist's meaning.

It is really wonderful to think of the energy


Very honored M. Carnegie!

Since a longer time I read in all our bad newspapers, that you have no use for your immense fortune.

I will give you the best advice I can.

Buy with your whole money „Dynamit", „Nytroglycerin", „Ecrasit", or „Lyddit" — I do not know, what of this explosive substances has the greatest power to destroy — and.... destroy our old, tedious, europeen continent, that all the sleepy, haughty and unwilling to work, europeen peoples will decrease and the „rest must begin at the beginning.

N. R.

An officer of the aust.-hung. army, in which nobody is allowed to work outside of his military business.

Neu-Zuczka, Bukowina, Austria.
2d February 1900.

FAC-SIMILE OF A LETTER RECEIVED BY MR. CARNEGIE.

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and thirst for knowledge which could produce such general literary culture in so busy a man, — starting at fourteen with only a common school education and a mother and brother to provide for besides himself.

As might be expected of any one who keeps himself so thoroughly informed on current affairs, he goes through a vast amount of periodical literature. Every day in New York he reads the following New York papers: the *Sun*, the *Times*, the *Herald*, the *Tribune*, the *World*, the *Press*, the *Evening Post*, the *Commercial Advertiser*, and the *Mail and Express*,— besides the Pittsburg *Gazette*, the *Leader*, and the *Times*, and the London *Times;* he also reads regularly the *Spectator*, the *Speaker* of London, the *Iron Age*, the *Iron Trades Review*, the *Iron and Coal Trades Review*, and the important monthlies (among which he has included the WORLD'S WORK since its birth). After he has read a paper it is useless for any one to think of giving him points by calling his attention to any article in it; for it will be found that he has already "seen it," and digested its significance.

In looking over Mr. Carnegie's writings one cannot fail to be struck by the terseness, felicity, and "pith" of many of his phrases. It is not the studied elegance of the stylist, but the epigrammatic expression of a vigorous personality. Here are a few extracts taken at random: —

"If a man would eat, he must work. A life of elegant leisure is the life of an unworthy citizen. The Republic does not owe him a living; it is he who owes the Republic a life of usefulness. Such is the Republican idea." — *Triumphant Democracy.*

"In looking back you never feel that upon any occasion you have acted too generously, but you often regret that you did not give enough." — *An American Four-in-Hand in Britain.*

"Among the saddest of all spectacles to me is that of an elderly man occupying his last years grasping for more dollars." — *An American Four-in-Hand in Britain.*

"The Monarchist boasts more bayonets, the Republican more books." — *Triumphant Democracy.*

"There are a thousand heroines in the world to-day for every one any preceding age has produced." — *Triumphant Democracy.*

"Immense power is acquired by assuring yourself in your secret reveries that you were born to control affairs." — *Curry Commercial College, Pittsburgh, June 23, 1885.*

"A great thing this instantaneous photography; one has not time to look his very worst." — *An American Four-in-Hand in Britain.*

"But Eve was not used to kind treatment. Adam was by no means a modern model husband, and never gave Eve anything in excess except blame." — *An American Four-in-Hand in Britain.*

"People never appreciate what is wholly given to them so highly as that to which they themselves contribute." — *An American Four-in-Hand in Britain.*

"The instinct which led the slave-holder to keep his slave in ignorance was a true one. Educate man, and his shackles fall." — *Triumphant Democracy.*

"There is no price too dear to pay for perfection." — *Round the World.*

"Without wealth there can be no Mæcenas." — *The Gospel of Wealth.*

"Individualism will continue, but the millionaire will be only a trustee for the poor." — *The Gospel of Wealth.*

"In my wildest and most vindictive moments I have never gone so far as to wish that the Irish landlords as a class had justice." — *Speech at Glasgow, September 13, 1887.*

"I hope Americans will find some day more time for play, like their wiser brethren upon the other side." — *An American Four-in-Hand in Britain.*

"There is always peace at the end if we do our appointed work and leave the result with the Unknown." — *An American Four-in-Hand in Britain.*

"Be king in one line, not a Jack of all trades." —

"For Heaven our Home, substitute Home our Heaven." —

"Break orders to save owners every time." — *Curry Address.*

"Put all your eggs in one basket and then watch that basket." — *Curry Institute Address, 1885.*

Andrew Carnegie to-day, at sixty-four, is more active and vigorous than most men of half his age both at his work and his recreations. He is rather small physically, but tireless in his sports. Though his hair is now white, there is a light in his eye and a sense of power in his face, bearing, and erect carriage, which bear evidence to his splendid vitality of mind and body.

He has a profound admiration for the men who really *do* things, with an emphasis on the "do," which, as is his habit, he often illus-

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MR. CARNEGIE IN HIS LIBRARY DICTATING TO MR. BERTRAM, HIS SECRETARY.

trates by a good story. An old friend of his in Pittsburg, who kept his fast trotters and held the record, was beaten in a brush by a young man. The old gentleman disappeared for some time. He had gone to Kentucky to get a horse that would reëstablish his supremacy. He was being shown over a stud, and had already been past a long string of horses with their records on the stall, and the victories they had won. Then he was taken through a long line of young horses with their pedigrees, from which the dealer was proving what they were going to do when they got on the track. The old gentleman, wiping his forehead, — for it was a hot day, — suddenly turned to the dealer and said: —

"Look here, stranger, — you've shown me 'have beens,' and you've let me see your 'going to-be's,' but what I am here for is an 'iser.'"

One who knows him says: "A friend is struck most strongly, in coming into association with Mr. Carnegie, by the force and tenacity of his own convictions. When he has thought out a thing, he knows that he is right, and he will fight to the bitter end. To

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say that he has the courage of his convictions is not more than half telling the story; he has the courage of ten men for one conviction, and, one rather suspects, thoroughly enjoys defending his own side. In the case of the South African War and the Philippines he was most violently against many of his best friends. He was a friend of the Boer and a friend of the Filipino, and he collected a tremendous amount of printed matter on these subjects, from which he informed himself so minutely as to render him a formidable opponent on either question."

Unlike many men of large deeds, he is a great talker, and his well-rounded mind, unusual versatility, quick interest, and fund of humorous stories make him the best of companions. He is never at a loss, and is equally at home "jollying" the dry-goods men at an Arkwright Club dinner or giving sound advice to Mr. John D. Rockefeller, Jr.'s, Bible class.

With all his enormous wealth he takes pleasure in the simplest things, provided they are genuine. While a frequent visitor at the opera, he owns no box, but sits in the body of the house. He has travelled widely, yet he does not own a private car, adhering to the democratic principles that he has so forcibly laid down. He has the truly great physical ability of going to sleep at will, and in the intervals of important duties he will drop off in a short sleep, gaining refreshment denied to most men.

His sympathy is always with any man, particularly a young man, who is hammering away honestly to make his success. A friend says of him:—

"Andrew Carnegie has none of the arrogance of wealth, and his kindliness of spirit goes out most warmly to the people who are struggling to get ahead in the world, whether in business, in education, musical study, or indeed any direction. As an instance of this, I know of a case where a young man was leaving a position which he had filled successfully for a good many years, to start in business on his own account, sacrificing a large salary and risking all. Mr. Carnegie, hearing of this, and knowing the young man slightly, wrote him a letter out of pure kindliness, congratulating him on making the change, and prophesying a success. This letter was timed to arrive when it would do most good,—the moment when the difficulties of the struggle seemed most trying. The young man of this instance gained a confidence and a wholesome faith in himself, which has been of the utmost value to him."

One secret of his success is his profound confidence in the people whom he has gathered about him. He does things which a stranger would pronounce unbusinesslike and careless; but that stranger would be struck, upon investigation, by the fact that never once had this habit gotten him into trouble. He acts on the principle that to trust a man in itself goes a long way toward making him worthy of trust,—and his judgment of men is so keen that he trusts the right man.

Eminently broad-minded, Mr. Carnegie believes in all religions, but in no theologies. He has great sympathy, for instance, with the young Chinaman who came to him, heart-broken, because he had been told by the missionary that his fathers had been heathen for centuries, that his children were idolaters, and that they would be surely found in the place of everlasting punishment! He sees the good in the religion of Confucius, of Buddha, and, in fact, all the sects, Oriental and Western. He is not a contributor to foreign missions, and confines his giving to directions in which he is familiar and of which he has knowledge.

It is a pleasant picture this, of a sturdy, forceful, large-minded man, putting the whole energy of his nature into carrying out great enterprises, or playing golf, or writing books, or fishing, or coaching, or placing the means of self-education within the reach of millions of his fellow-men. Surely he is a fine specimen of the modern Citizen of the Republic.

The first volume of his life is closed, and the poor bobbin factory boy retires from business, as Mr. Morgan says, "the richest man in the world," all made in legitimate manufacturing, never a share sold or bought on the stock exchange. This is a "record breaker"; but what if the last volume of this man's life is to render the other, marvellous though it be, comparatively unimportant? Others have made great fortunes, though less in amount; but it is often said of Mr. Carnegie that he never does things like other men: will he give the world a last volume more surprising than the first? There are those who so believe, but that is another story. We must await developments.

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A SEA CAPTAIN'S DAY'S WORK

THE MASTER OF A TRANSATLANTIC LINER — HIS ARDUOUS CARES AND RESPONSIBILITIES — IN ABSOLUTE CONTROL OF A GREAT VESSEL'S VOYAGE ACROSS THE SEA WITH TWO THOUSAND SOULS ON BOARD

BY

MAXIMILIAN FOSTER

NOON — and another day. As it goes ashore: a span of four-and-twenty hours — two rounds of the clock divided into the details of even, ordinary life. The day swings by, rest, labor, and recreation have their allotted turn, all in order as ordained. But here upon the sea 'tis different. Four-and-twenty hours that slip by lazily, perhaps; calm seas that reflect the blueness of the open sky, or — There is the other side: four-and-twenty hours that drag along, each freighted with a heavy care; anxious hours of peril when the life of the ship and the safety of perhaps two thousand souls weigh gravely upon the mind. In the day's work of a liner captain are many views of life.

His task is large. Here, now, is one of the modern flyers, a hull of fifteen thousand tons or more, peopled fore and aft. Five hundred souls are in the cabin, eight hundred in the steerage, and through the ship her working force, perhaps four hundred more. On one man's shoulders, after all is done, rests the burden of responsibility and care. He is the director, the adviser, of the great fabric, the head of this veritable village flying, full-powered, from coast to coast. All aboard appeal to him, but he must hold counsel with himself alone. There is none for him to fall back upon if peril comes and disaster stalks upon the sea.

Noon — one ship's-day gone and another begun. Around lies the dead, gray fog — a dull vapor, reeking of the salty sea, and blinding the liner as she noses onward along the course. Here from the bridge you see only the shifting veil that lies on every side, baffling the eye and killing the sense of hearing. Forward, the bows end bluntly in that wall of mist whose streamers swirl eddying along her flanks as she forges through the gloom. For an instant, overhead, the sun shows, a coppery ball striving through the gray vapor. In the starboard wing of the bridge — she is eastward bound — the captain stands; beside him, an officer with the sextant. Noon — a chronometer ticks the

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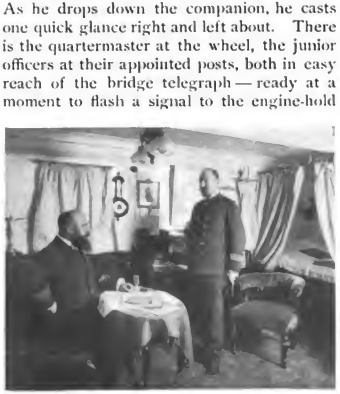


CLEANING UP IN THE STEERAGE.

second of the hour. Upward points the sextant, an anxious eye peering through the flying mist. "Got it?" the captain murmurs, and the other nods. And now, for the first time, perhaps, in thirty or forty hours, will be shown their exact position upon this blank, solemn waste of sea.

Once more another cloud of the fog-bank drives across the zenith, and the red sun is gone. The whistle blares, a choking blast, and forward a bell beats the hour of day — eight strokes — each a startling noise breaking through the silent fog. The ship's-day has begun.

The captain and his aide quit the bridge. As he drops down the companion, he casts one quick glance right and left about. There is the quartermaster at the wheel, the junior officers at their appointed posts, both in easy reach of the bridge telegraph — ready at a moment to flash a signal to the engine-hold below. Onward drives the ship, her engines slowed a turn or so, yet still at a flying gait and bound to make her schedule time.



THE CHIEF OFFICER REPORTS.

Below — underneath the bridge — is the chart-room, a square cuddy, filled with charts of sea and shore, lighted forward with broad panels of glass that look out, forward and at the sides, on three-quarters of the sea. On the centre table lies the ocean chart, ruled with the course, and the narrow lanes of east- and west-bound traffic. Flights of arrows — the ocean currents — are marked upon its face; numerals in broken columns fix the soundings — wherever soundings are, — and pencilled lines, marked at the ends with dots, show her run thus far across the sea. They stretch the chart before them, and take the



THE CAPTAIN IN HIS ROOM.

sextant reading. Minutes of silence pass, the men in creaking oilskins poring over their work, each figuring with exactness and pains, with the zealous care of a bank-clerk. Then they end; the result is read; they compare figures, each scrutinizing the other's work.

"Morning, chief," the captain greets, as the chief engineer comes in. He brings the engine's cards, the record of its work — scores that tell to a turn the revolutions of the screws. With a clouded sun they must fall back on these, to find by them a dead reckoning of her place. Below the giant power is heaving at its toil, the strength of fifteen thousand horses leashed to the threshing screws. Stroke by stroke the engines fling about, the thudding cranks flying in their orbits, strenuous, yet docile as a child, answering to the lightest touch that gives or

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ON THE BRIDGE.

Captain and chief officer watching a passing ship.

takes their steam. "All's well," reports the chief, and goes below.

The ship's run is reckoned, her position marked upon the chart. The pencilled dot falls in the midst of the meteoric arrows, symbols that show the current leading down from Arctic seas. The ship is on the southern course, a good bit below the usual track of berg and floe, hard perils of the North Atlantic trade; but even here there may be some stray wanderer out of the Arctic north, and a liner captain takes no risk.

Again to the bridge: the junior officers are at their posts, their eyes strained forward, each pressing in his eagerness hard against the weather-cloths spread from rail to stanchion. A sharp blast drives down from the windward quarter, harping for an instant among the standing rigging. It is cold—perceptibly grows colder. The mercury is falling; the sea thermometer, drawn from below, shows the water chilling, too. "Ice!" they say sententiously.

Yet still the ship drives on. Word passes forward to the lookout, for sharp eyes now are needed there. Two watchers are by the bows; another in the crow's-nest up aloft. Slow down, you say? No—there are mails aboard, and passengers hurrying from port to port. Time counts, and a ship that fails in her schedules loses favor all around. So through fog, high seas, and driving gale, the liners keep their way, halting only in the face of peril, and turning from their courses only in the face of imminent disaster.

The fog shuts in, a thicker pall. The ship's bows drive deeper into the mist; the whistle blares, hooting, deep-chested, with a deafening crash. Between the warning blasts there is silence on the bridge, and forward stands the master, the moisture dripping from his brow and beard. Once more, a raw gust flares

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THE BOAT DRILL.

across, touching coldly, like a hand of death, upon the straining faces. Instinctively they all turn toward the captain. His hand lifts — "Slow down," says he.

At a touch the pointers on the dials bear over; the gongs of the bridge telegraph clatter sharply to the answer from the engine-hold below, and the tread of the machinery changes. Then as the hum of the bells dies down, a hoarse shout from the forward look-out follows: —

"Ice — dead ahead!"

A sharp commotion fills the bridge. An order raps along: —

"Starboard your helm — hard down! Full speed ahead on the port engine — astern a-starboard!"

No time now to go full speed astern; they could not check her way.

The gongs beat their frantic measure. Silence follows. For an instant then, they hear the sound of the sea breaking as upon an iron coast. A tall shadow uprears in the mist, the dim outline of peaks and spires. Shout follows shout from the lookouts by the bow; the fog splits asunder. There — see — under her bows almost, an overtowering cliff



BELOW IN THE ENGINE HOLD.
The captain conferring with the chief engineer.

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IN THE MUSIC ROOM.
Looking over the programme of the ship's concert.

uprears — a cathedral of ice, a heavy base rising to pinnacles, all of deepest blue. Harshly, the waves ply against its flanks, and a giant tremor falls upon the ship, quivering fore and aft under the strokes of the contending screws. Then her head pays off; she draws from the impending doom, slips by so close that one may peer into caves and valleys of the berg; and the fog shuts down anew.

The ship sheers off, her whistle hooting as in terror. Behind lies the disaster-bringing stray of the North, lost again in the choking fog. Another signal sounds upon the bridge; the shocking of the screws dies down. Her helm is turned, she points upward on her course and, at three-quarters speed, again goes driving on her way.

"Touch and go," mutters a voice, speaking as in a dream.

Another watch gone by. Overhead, the sky lightens, and there is a crisp promise in the wind. Forward, a rift opens in the bank, a narrow lane, where the sea heaves like a lake of oil, hardly ruffled by the gusts that sweep beneath the edge of the vapor sheets. "She's lifting," one of the juniors says, but with the words still in his mouth, the fog draws in again, and drives along the rail. Then, as before, again the vapor rises, and a broad stretch of open water lies beyond, a clear sea, and there, close in upon her lee, a straggling fleet of Gloucester craft hanging at their anchors. One lies hard aboard; so near that you can stare down on her upturned deck, filled with its chaos of tackle and nests of dories stowed along the rail. A wild clamor of horn and bell greets the liner as she pokes out from the fog, and the rails are lined as she picks her way through the press of fishing craft. One by one they drop astern; again the fog bank settles, and so — open and shut throughout the watch — the ship fares on till, with a sudden puff, the vapor lifts aloft, and the westering sun shoots a fiery light across the wide expanse of sea.

"Full speed" — the order passes; and once more she is tilting her way, the voice of the engines below rising in the song of haste and steam.

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ON THE BRIDGE AFTER THE STORM.

This is the mid-Atlantic. Yet on every side are plying sail. Astern, the fishing craft dot the ocean's edges, and in the southern quarter, an east-bound tramp, astray through the mist, has wandered far from her rightful course. On the western rim of the visible sea, a Norwegian bark, deep-laden, bends to the rising breeze, and farther on is a smudge of smoke from some other liner's stacks. It is even here a crowded course, and so even on the widest sea one must pick a way. There is no slap-dash rushing from coast to coast in the trans-Atlantic trade. High speed is the rule, of course. But few outside the trade know or can understand the care under which these liners fly from port to port. What if by chance — a dire chance, indeed — some hull should go tilting in the fog against the flank of one of these deep-sea flyers? Such things occur, but they are few and far between. Even then the liner captains know their work, and the fair-weather boat-drill is not altogether for show, nor to interest the saloon.



IN THICK WEATHER.

Once more, now, a clear sea stretches around the ship. In the west, the sun is drawing down to the clean rim of the sky-line, and night is near at hand. One last look about, and the captain starts below. For these last thirty hours or more he has stood upon the bridge to have and to hold in his grasp the care of the ship and all the lives aboard. His anxieties, now, for a moment are at rest. The course is given; the watches changed. "I'll turn in for a nap — call me if I'm needed," he warns the watching men.

But sleep, for a man weary with his cares,

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is a tricky thing. Perhaps an hour's restless turning, or a time of heavy slumber. Then the call for dinner sounds; he arises wearily, yet with a cheerful face takes his place at table.

In these days the blunt bad manners of the old Atlantic trade are seen no more. The captain is the host of his ship, amiable and agreeable, but as a rule keeping to himself in hours of duty. At the table he unbends, perhaps, but at all times his courtesy is expected. So for a half hour, now, he chats with those at his right and left, and with a bow, withdraws.

The night has fallen. A strong wind strikes its note among the standing rigging, and far down the horizon is a bank of clouds. A minute the tired man leans against the rail, staring around upon the sea, marks the distant cloud-bank lighted by the rising moon, and with a long breath walks into the chart-room for a look at the glass. It marks an approaching blow. He notes the change, and once more mounts to the bridge.

Blind squalls of rain drive in procession across the sea, and spray strikes hissing upon the weather cloths along the bridge. Stiffly, the big liner rises to the crest of a running wave, and slips down, snoring through the valley beyond. Then, with a plunge — her head tossing off the weight — she climbs again, and so on through the gloom plunges to the westward.

The night glasses pore through the murk ahead. A squall goes by; a dim shadow rises on the deep. "Hard a-port!" a sharp voice cries along the bridge, and the wheel flies spinning over. There — just ahead — a ghostly fabric starts from the sea; underneath a dark hull, and above a pinnacle of flapping cloth, as the stranger, dismayed, flies up into the wind. In hasty alarm the liner



TRYING THE BULKHEAD DOORS.

At sea, the captain is required to make sure that they are always in working order.

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From the painting by Paul Jobert.

"ON THE BANKS."

What the ocean steamship means to the fisherman.

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sheers away, slipping past the ship that lies there, her sails fluttering like the pinions of a frightened bird. Then she is gone again, lost in the dark astern.

Throughout the night, he stands at his post, the master in command. Then dawn rises, the storm blows by, and the glorious sun shoots above the sea. There is still a stiff sea running, but this and the wet decks are the only traces of the night's foul weather; and, worn out, the captain resigns his watch, and once more seeks his broken rest.

The morning wanes; again he appears. Once more to the bridge where the watch reports, a slim account of details since the storm went by. For facility's sake, the captain breakfasts there — a cup of coffee and a sandwich. Then it is half-past ten, and a new feature of his life appears, a thing that shows the multiplicity of his cares.

Below, the chiefs of the divisions wait — the chief officer, purser, doctor, and head steward. Ship has been cleaned for the day, and the master, like a housewife, must make sure that all is neatness and order. Followed by his staff he walks along, looking through all the gangways and along the decks, viewing the cabins, a few moments in the music room, a few more in the saloons. He sits for an instant while his work waits, scanning the programme of the inevitable concert — the entertainment in aid of seamen's charities. Then on again, a peep into the staterooms, a brief but thorough inspection of the fire hose and apparatus. His journey carries him on; he must see to every cabin, forward and aft, the saloons and the steerage. He must satisfy himself that all is clean and shipshape, that the saloons are spick and span, that the steerage is thoroughly scrubbed.

He climbs about the striving engines, glances at the dials, and goes on. The bulkheads next engage him. Once a day, at least, all that are open at sea must be tried for safety's sake. If fog, wind, or sea keeps the captain on the bridge, he must make sure that others have looked to the work. Here, to-day, he inspects it all himself, sees that the men are at their appointed posts, that the bulkhead doors work smoothly without a hitch. Then, aloft again, a slow march around the decks thronged with the life of the ship, and all secure in safety. He stops here and there, chatting with the passengers that engage him, and once more mounts to the bridge.

It is noon — noon and another day in the life at sea. Thus the round goes on.



DECK INSPECTION.

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A STENTOR READING THE DAY'S NEWS TO 6200 SUBSCRIBERS.



THE TELEPHONE NEWSPAPER

THE "TELEFON-HIRMONDO," OR "NEWSTELLER," OF BUDAPEST—THE DAY'S NEWS TOLD AS IT OCCURS TO 6200 SUBSCRIBERS SITTING IN THEIR HOMES—A REGULAR PROGRAMME LASTING FROM 10.30 A.M. TO 10.30 P.M.—SUNDAY-NIGHT CONCERTS TRANSMITTED TO THE SUBSCRIBERS—A MOST SUCCESSFUL INNOVATION

BY

THOMAS S. DENISON

WE are very apt to claim preeminence for America in the matter of inventions and of novel mechanical applications. But the Hungarians have had for eight years in actual working operation a development of the telephone of which few people in the United States know anything, even by report: the telephone newspaper, or *Telefon-Hirmondo* as it is called, of Budapest.

For a quarter of a century one of the favorite dreams of the modern prophets has pictured the home equipped with apparatus by means of which one can hear concerts or listen to the latest news, while sitting comfortably by his own fireside. This dream is a fact to-day in Budapest. Music, telegraphic news "hot" from the wires, literary criticism, stock quotations, reports of the Reichsrath, — the whole flood of matter that fills the columns of our newspapers may be had for the mere lifting of a telephone receiver.

I went to Budapest last May, expecting to find this unique "newspaper," of which I had heard so much, rather a fad for a few score of people who had sufficient interest to keep it as a passing diversion. To my surprise I found a great journal with all the equipments of a first-class paper in a very lively city of nearly 600,000 people — all the equipment, that is, except presses, paper, and printer's ink. *Telefon-Hirmondo* has 6200 subscribers. The staff consists of a business manager, an editor-

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in-chief, four assistant editors, and nine reporters.

This novel and interesting enterprise was started about eight years ago by Theodore Buschgasch, who had been interested in electricity and had patented some inventions. Mr. Buschgasch died March 16, 1893, and the present efficiency of the paper in all that pertains to its technique is largely due to Mr. Emil von Szveties, who is known on the staff as technical director. His skill and energy have produced great results. The concern is owned by a stock company with a capital of 600,000 florins (about $250,000).

Telefon-Hirmondo occupies commodious offices on the third and fourth floors of a fine building on one of the finest avenues of Budapest. It divides the entire city into twenty-seven districts, and the main wire runs to each district, with branch wires to the houses. An accurate map of the system hangs in the central office. The company owns its own wires and plant throughout, and has the same right to place wires that is enjoyed by the telephone and telegraph companies.

Twenty-seven copper wires run from microphone receivers in the Opera House to the central office. There the current passes through a patented device which increases the sound, its distribution to subscribers being regulated by another ingenious contrivance, also patented. The paper has 560 kilometres of wire and 6200 receivers; that is, one for each subscriber. Its spools may be seen everywhere under the cornices of the houses. The stentor or reader talks into a double receiver or 'phone, and the subscriber has two ear-pieces like those used by the telephone clerks. The sound of the reader's voice is greatly strengthened by the machine; and by making a receiver in the office the last on the circuit the management may at any time test the working of the wires.

It is most interesting to follow the actual "issue of the paper." A complete programme is tacked to the wall above each subscriber's receiver, and a glance at this tells just what may be expected at any hour, every day except Sundays and holidays having the same programme. The issue begins at 10.30 A.M. and ends about 10.30 P.M. unless a concert or some other night event is being reported, when it keeps on till later.



REPORTERS ON THE TELEPHONE NEWSPAPER.

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Stock exchange hours are: A.M. — 10 to 10.30, 11 to 11.15, 11.30 to 11.45.

These reports reach subscribers several hours ahead of the evening papers. Quotations are given again in the afternoon, while reports of the Reichsrath and political news occupy the time from 11.45 to 12. When the Reichsrath is not in session, the time is filled by fuller reports of general and foreign news. General news of course comes all day at intervals. At 1.30 and at 6 P.M. is a brief *résumé* for those who missed the first news. From 5.00 to 6.00 there are concerts, varied by literary criticism, sporting events, and so on. Special items for Sunday are: 11 to 11.30 — news, 4.30 to 6.00 — a concert, and every Thursday evening at six there is a concert for children. The writer was invited to witness a performance in the concert room of *Hirmondo*, but unfortunately a violent thunder storm interfered with the use of the wires.

Telefon-Hirmondo is independent in a sense not known in America; it has no leading articles, no editorials, no opinions — unless its short notices of literature and art can come under the last head. The editor alone is responsible in case of action against the paper for libel. He has already had two or three lawsuits, but has won all of them.

The mechanical processes of the paper are about as follows: The news (telegraphic, exchange, specials, and locals) is secured by the ordinary methods known in all newspaper offices. The reporter who has finished his assignment writes out his matter in ink and submits it to his chief, who signs it on the margin of the printed form. This signature fixes responsibility. A clerk then takes the copy and carefully copies it with lithographic ink on long galley slips. These are transferred to the stone so as to appear in parallel columns about six inches wide and two feet long. Two pressmen take several impressions on a roller-movement hand press. Common printing-paper is used. Each sheet is submitted to an assistant editor, who, with the aid of a copyholder, exactly as in proof-reading, verifies its correctness. This sheet constitutes the file, and a duplicate is cut up into convenient strips for the use of the stentors. Each sheet comprises a certain part of the programme, and the whole number of sheets, with hour dates, constitute the day's file.

The stentors are six in number in winter, when the paper is likely to be crowded with important matter, four for duty and two alternates. In summer four suffice. The stentors have strong, clear voices and distinct articulation, and the news comes from the receivers with remarkable strength and clearness. When all six stentors are present, they take turns of ten minutes each; if for any reason only two are on duty, a half hour is the extreme required of one reader.

The only ladies employed on the staff are those engaged in the concerts, and Mr. Horváth called my attention to the fact that in no other newspaper office in the world could be found such a staff.

In answer to my inquiry as to expenses, Mr. Horváth kindly assured me that I was free to investigate. His brief reply was: "We have no secrets." The current expenses are between 9000 and 10,000 florins per month (a florin is about 42 cents). This includes, of course, interest on the plant. The fixed charges, that is, those which must be met every day, — telegrams, salaries, rent, etc., — are about 7000 florins a month, varying in different seasons. The subscription price per annum is 18 florins, and for 6200 subscribers that part of the income is easily figured. Advertising receipts, from the nature of the case, are necessarily limited. It must be a paradise for advertisers, for every man's advertisement must be not only "next reading matter," but actually between items of interest. The charge is one florin for twelve seconds. The paper pays press rates for telegrams. The editor estimates that at the end of ten years the paper will have a valuable plant and privilege paid for, and be able to reduce the price, which is very low now, considering that the telephone in Budapest costs 150 florins per year. To an outsider, the concern appears prosperous. It employs in all about 180 people in winter and 150 in summer. This includes everybody, from office boy, linemen, and janitor to chief editor.

Among the prominent subscribers of *Telefon-Hirmondo* are the Prime Minister, Baron Banffy, and all the other members of the Hungarian Cabinet; Maurus Jokai, the famous author; the Mayor of Budapest. In fact, the paper appeals strongly to the more intellec-

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IN THE CONCERT ROOM OF THE TELEPHONE NEWSPAPER.

tual classes, and the capital of Hungary is a very wide-awake, enterprising city.

The "aggrieved subscriber" sometimes wishes to stop his paper, but he cannot do this as easily as a subscriber to a printed journal. In the first place, he has had a receiver put into his house at the company's expense and he has been obliged to give security for a year's subscription, one-third of which he pays when the instrument is ready for use. He pays the balance in two equal payments, at the end of four months and eight respectively. If the grievance is real, the editor tries to remove it by means of the soft answer that turns away wrath from the editorial head; if imaginary or absurd, the paper keeps the time-honored waste basket for its reception. The editors and managers receive the usual courtesies extended to the press in the way of passes and free tickets, and the paper exchanges with the city press. Unknown persons, such as temporary lodgers or boarders in hotels, cannot, of course, become subscribers, but the principal hotels do subscribe, and their guests are free to use the instrument.

Hirmondo is at present trying an experiment with "penny-in-the-slot" machines. The coin used is a 20-*filler* piece, worth about two cents in our money. Music by telephone, whether vocal or instrumental, still leaves something to be desired. The telephone timbre must be got rid of before music can be transmitted satisfactorily. The report of news, however, is highly satisfactory.

So far as a stranger can judge, who is wholly ignorant of the language of the country, the enterprise is distinctly a success. The paper is so well known and has accomplished so much that it appears to be beyond the stage of experiment so far as Budapest is concerned. One strong point in its favor is its early reports. In this respect the paper has a strong hold, for it is able to issue an "extra" at any hour of the day. Moreover, invalids and busy people may get as much news as they want with little effort. Indeed, the plan has so many advantages, that we shall probably soon see it in operation on this side of the ocean, with the improvements that Yankee ingenuity will be sure to devise.

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ARCHBISHOP JOHN IRELAND

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ARCHBISHOP JOHN IRELAND

THE STRONG PERSONALITY AND THE CAREER OF THE LIBERAL ARCHBISHOP OF ST. PAUL

BY

MARY C. BLOSSOM

"THE watchwords of the age are reason, education, liberty, the amelioration of the masses." In this ringing utterance Archbishop Ireland declares himself and the work of his life. From the inland city where he has lived for more than forty years, he has reached forth and made his influence felt at the seat of the papal power itself; and what his strong personality stands for is to be found nowhere else in the world. A true and earnest Catholic, preserving within himself the spiritual life of the early Church, yet he is cordially hated by some of the most devout within the pale; as a man among men, he is welcome in all councils of every denomination, whenever two or three are gathered together and the spirit of truth is there.

In 1849 Richard Ireland, a carpenter, came from Ireland with his wife and family. A boy of eleven was in the group, and after remaining in Fort Dearborn, now Chicago, for three years, they moved to St. Paul, at that time a bleak little trading-post on the very outer edge of civilization. Here the boy donned the robe of an acolyte and assisted at the mass for about a year; then he attracted the attention of the bishop, who sent him to be educated in France. Four busy, happy years were spent at Meximeux and four at Var, after which he returned to St. Paul and was ordained a priest in 1861. The next year he went into the army as chaplain and was at the battle of Corinth, but was compelled by illness to resign after ten months' service. He is an honored member of the Loyal Legion, of whose gatherings his good stories and genial personality form a notable part. He was later made bishop and in 1888 archbishop of St. Paul. The magnificent pageantry and organized power of the Roman Church form a background which invests all its prelates with romantic interest, and against which a strong personality paints itself in subtle values. Yet a man successful in diplomacy may be much more than a diplomat, a man with the spirit of God in his heart be much more than a priest. Such is John Ireland, whose name well suits the broad and sweeping outlines of his mental and physical expression.

The Archbishop is a man of average height, powerfully built, with a profile which is often spoken of as resembling that of Dante. He has a massive head and a penetrating gray eye, direct as an eagle's, but changing and becoming gentle with his mood. One cannot imagine that Dante once in all his life should have thrown back his head and laughed with the hearty human gesture of the Archbishop, whose sense of humor is abundant. He is very accessible to the poor, never too busy with matters of state to be interested like Lydgate in the affairs of John and Elizabeth, and above all things he is practical in his methods of aiding them. He is a robust and virile man among men, a reminder in his person of the time when the Church's ministers were "representatives, not of religion only and the claims of God, but of moral order, of the rights of conscience and the sympathies of men, of the bonds of authority of human society — the only trusted guides of life."

SINCERITY AND SENSE

The strength of the man lies first in his absolute sincerity. He is ambitious — can hardly understand any one who is not; he is certainly a statesman of admitted power, and has scored many a quiet triumph on his diplomatic missions. These, however, are never undertaken for his own glory, but because he has some deep purpose at heart.

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It is the ring of sincerity that makes his eloquence convincing; his gestures are awkward, his voice is at times almost harsh and discordant, his delivery monotonous; but his words strike home because they are spoken in the desire of good.

As early as 1869 he organized the first Catholic total abstinence society, and has been a persistent advocate of temperance all his life. As young as he then was, he denounced the saloon-keepers from the pulpit and refused to confess them, until, after years of effort, St. Paul was greatly improved in respect of drunkenness, and all the lowest resorts were completely wiped out. At all public meetings and banquets the Archbishop with his fund of humor is a most welcome guest; but his glass remains untouched by his side.

His most distinguishing characteristic is probably a sort of sublimated common sense. It is this which enables him to see that the power of the Church in the Republic lies in her ability to realize that all life is progression and that she must keep up with the march. He sees things in the large, takes very little account of individuals, forgets a favor and an injury with equal readiness, not because he is without gratitude, but because he is Napoleonic in the scope of his vision, which sees legions to go here and to go there, not the men which compose them. Like William Morris, he is "strangely incurious of individuals," and could work "with any one sympathetic to him or not, so long as they helped along the work in hand." It is related of him that, after a mission to Rome in which he was eminently successful, he was known to have two men to dine with him who had been sent as delegates to oppose him. When he was asked if they had not been a part of the committee, he replied, "Very likely, very likely; I dare say they were."

One of his most sacred and unshakable beliefs is a singular one to be held so firmly by a priest of his Church. It proves the breadth of the man; it is the belief in the right of personal liberty. Many times he has been asked to use his influence in some political movement or other where his power would be felt, and he has plainly refused because it would be interfering with personal liberty. There is nothing petty or small about him; he has as little time for personal animosities as for the acquisition of personal possessions. He has an income of about $6000 a year, but his personal expenses are very small indeed. His tastes are simple almost to frugality and accord well with the purity of his life.

He has been féted in many countries, and he has received the most distinguished courtesy from courts and kings. A reception was given to him in London, at which every Catholic peer in Great Britain was present, many coming from Scotland and Ireland to do him honor; yet is he as simple as a child in his appreciation of a word from the heart; and when he can forget his cares for a moment, the spirit of youth looks from his eyes. He is conscious of his relation to his Church, but all unconscious of what he means to the outside world. He says with a far-away look, "How many a man has ploughed through the waves and they have closed behind him, and that is all of it!"

A VISIT TO FRANCE

At a critical time of friction between the French Republic and the papal powers, the Pope requested Archbishop Ireland to go to Paris. He expressed himself unwilling to go as an envoy, but desirous to go as a priest if he could do any good. So he went to the Grand Hotel, and wrote his name as John Ireland. He was assigned to a room on the fifth floor, not large, but "good enough," he said, "good enough." A French dignitary soon appeared inquiring for the Archbishop, and he was told that there was no such person there. On looking over the register, the name was found. The visitor being announced, the Archbishop requested that he be asked upstairs, and when he arrived at the room he raised his hands in horror, exclaiming, "*Mon Dieu!* To think of an Archbishop being housed like this."

The result of the visit was that a great meeting was held, at which twenty-five hundred persons were present and ten thousand were turned away. As the Archbishop spoke, he felt his fluency in the French language returning to him after twenty-five years, and his rapid eloquence surprised his hearers and held them. At the end he was at a loss how to close, when, catching sight of the French and American flags draped together at the

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end of the room, he turned toward them and addressed them in an impassioned burst which carried all before it. Afterward he heard a French priest say, "What if a French prelate had addressed the flag of the Republic!" His mission was most successful, and the Holy Father thanked him personally for the service that he rendered.

To his personal magnetism and breadth of sympathy the Archbishop owes much of his power. He is received at the Union League Club in St. Paul by a mixed assembly of capitalists both Protestant and Catholic, and is in sympathy with them all. He goes to a meeting of the old Sixty-ninth regiment, and is equally at home there. Some of the old Irishmen who had served in this regiment, when they met him were in the bonds of tradition and knelt to kiss his ring. He prefers not to have them do that, — "It is not American," he says. Neither does he like to be called "your Grace," — to be addressed as Archbishop pleases him better. He likes to meet men of all classes, and his personal magnetism and his democracy go hand in hand.

TOLERANT AND DEMOCRATIC

His true catholicity of spirit prevents denominational differences between the Church and those of different creeds. At one time a pavilion was built in St. Paul and a prize fight scandalized the Protestant citizens, who endeavored to suppress the objectionable sport. The Archbishop gave them his best assistance and full support. He is absolutely fearless, and always on the side of law and order and the improvement of social conditions. It is sometimes his independent position in politics that causes criticism in his own fold.

At the memorial service to the Episcopal Bishop Gilbert of St. Paul, he agreed to speak. When the time came he was not able to be present, but he sent a priest to read the very beautiful address he had prepared, to the great satisfaction of all present. At one meeting where he spoke, the opening prayer was made by a Methodist layman.

He gives forth no uncertain sound, but opposes openly where he is not able to agree. At one time it was suggested in St. Paul that he speak with a few men of other creeds on the question of the public schools. He assented to this, and said: "I want Christian men, not infidels, and not too many ministers." About sixty men were invited to the house of a prominent business man, and forty-five of them were present. They were of all denominations, Presbyterians, Episcopalians, Baptists, Catholics, and others. One very narrow Presbyterian minister combated the Archbishop with distressing plainness of speech; but this was received with gentle equanimity, and an entire evening was passed in discussing with the utmost candor on both sides the relation of Church and school. It is a matter of history that the Archbishop has favored the modification of existing conditions, and given the frank expression of his opinion in public speech.

He is first and last a loyal American of the Americans. On one occasion he was very earnest in explaining to the Pope that certain things which concerned the Latin Americans could not possibly apply to the whole nation; and he expressed himself roundly to convince the Holy Father of the diversity of our needs and obligations.

The Archbishop one day pointed to some branch of the Young Men's Christian Association and said, "That organization is what I envy more than anything else in Protestantism." On one occasion it was represented to him that in a certain matter it was difficult to bring in any church education for young people. His reply was: "Educate them, anyhow."

In the treatment of criminals he begs us to remember that when self-respect is gone the corner-stone of all virtue is removed. It is to the end of saving the Irish people who come to these shores and who, in tenement-house life, fall a prey to their own temperamental qualities that he has established the Irish colonies in Graceville and St. Paul. In 1876 he bought thousands of acres of land to be devoted to this purpose, and the experiment has been in the main a successful one.

There is no doubt that the Pope recognizes the importance of Archbishop Ireland's relation toward the English-speaking world, and especially toward this Republic; and should Leo XIII be succeeded by a Pope who continues the same liberal policy, the future will undoubtedly prove the sagacity of the Archbishop more and more.

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THE POLITICAL STATUS OF EUROPE—ITALY

THE YOUNG KING AND THE PROBLEMS THAT CONFRONT HIM —THE POLITICAL CHARACTER OF THE ITALIANS—THE KING AND THE POPE—WHAT WILL BE THE FUTURE OF ITALY?

BY

SYDNEY BROOKS

IT is the great good fortune of Italy that she at length possesses a king old enough to appreciate broadly the needs of his country and yet young enough not to quail before the task of reconstruction, a king, too, who even in the first few months of his reign has given proof after proof not only of a discerning mind, but of those qualities in which Italian statesmen are most lacking—political courage and power of will.

The courage of the late King Humbert was all but wholly physical and personal. He was a dashing cavalry leader and showed the true spirit of the house of Savoy on the battle-field and in the cholera hospitals. But politically he made himself a mere figure-head of the State. Except in arranging and upholding the Triple Alliance and keeping the army up to the mark, he went out of his way to efface himself. A fatalist by nature, nothing could move him to the point of self-assertion in domestic affairs. "The only thing one could predict with certainty of King Humbert," said a close observer, "was that he would do nothing with an imperturbable and immovable decision."

He watched disaffection spread out into open rebellion, saw Parliament falling year by year into disrepute and uselessness, and Socialism and Republicanism menacing the throne itself—and yet kept neutral, passive, seemingly unconcerned. He tried to reign and yet not to rule, and unhappily for Italy he succeeded. That is why the reign of this chivalrous and stout-hearted gentleman must be written down a failure.

THE COMING OF THE NEW KING

Victor Emmanuel III came to the throne last August, almost an unknown quantity. His infancy and boyhood were passed in studious ill-health; his education was rather that of the son of a professor than a monarch; such gossip as there was of his tastes and hobbies pointed in the unkingly direction of electrical engineering, coin collecting, literature, and genealogy. In the army, which he entered at eighteen, he made himself felt as a keen, if bookish, soldier and an exacting disciplinarian; but several years of voyaging for the benefit of his health withdrew him altogether from common notice. From this background of quiet and refined leisure he emerged for a moment, in 1896, to marry Princess Hélène of Montenegro.

His one known interference in politics as Prince of Naples dates from this same year. The disaster of Adowa, when seven thousand Italians were slaughtered by Menelek's army, sent the Crown Prince hurrying to his father's side to urge the dismissal of Crispi and the abandonment of the war. The point was carried, and for the first time the Crown Prince found himself almost popular, with the people at least.

The Court, up to the moment of his accession, looked on him much as the Court of Prussia looked on the flute-playing prince who was afterwards Frederick the Great.

The surprise, then, not only of Italy but of the world, was dramatically complete when there rang through the new king's first proclamation from the throne a note of decision, and confidence, and resolute masterfulness that had not been heard in Italy since the days of Charles Albert of Sardinia and the great Victor Emmanuel.

The grand group of statesmen who made United Italy passed without leaving their equals behind, and for the past thirty years,

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for the lack of a strong rallying-point, the country has "slumped." The regular irregularity of the Italian character might of itself argue that reaction was about due. But there is now a stronger reason for thinking so. The senators and deputies had but one phrase to summarize their impressions of the king's speech, — "The master has come." If Victor Emmanuel can only act as well and boldly as he can speak, — and the last few months have shown that he can, — then Italy has found what she most needs, a ruler who will not only lead, but control, who will not hesitate to command when suggestions fail, and who will see to it that his commands are obeyed.

ITALY SINCE THE WAR

By 1870, Italy found herself a free and united kingdom. The last foreign invader was driven from the soil; the old disconnected states, over which the weight of Austrian domination hung like a pall, were merged into one; the Church was deprived of its temporal power; the work of Cavour was completed. The Sicilians and the Romans, the Tuscans and the Piedmontese, closed up their ranks with the feeling that civil strifes and jealousies belonged to an outworn past and that a new era of peace and prosperity had dawned on Italy. And this achievement of unity is not only the most ambitious work that Cavour, and Mazzini, and Victor Emmanuel, and Garibaldi set their hands to; it is also the most solid.

There is sectionalism in Italy as there is everywhere. As in Spain and Germany the hard-headed and industrial North looks down upon the buoyant, sanguine, and businesslike South. Their history and traditions are different; their temperament is yet more unlike — Napoleon always thought that the peninsula should be broken into two states. The Sicilians are another dissimilar type, and as alien from the rest of their fellow-subjects as the Irish from the English; and elsewhere there are to be found Socialism, Republicanism, and the extreme of Ultra-Montanism fostering and fomenting the last vestiges of disunion left by centuries of separatism.

It is questionable, in Italy's case, whether any portion now feels itself as distinct from the rest as Scotland or Wales from England or Catalonia from Spain. And whatever may be the political ambitions of certain sections, whether they hope to see Italy turned into a Radical republic, or a sort of collectivist paradise, or guided to military glory and material prosperity under the direction of a strong and orderly discipline, no section, except possibly the most reactionary of Catholics, wishes or works for anything but a single united state.

But that, unhappily, all but sums up the brightest side of the national picture. How comes it that *malcontento* is a household word in Italy; that hardly a year goes by without some blind, semi-revolutionary rising, only to be repressed with rifle and bullet; that within less than half a century from that brilliant epoch of great men and great deeds the country should now disclose so many signs of moral and political decrepitude; that it should be possible for a writer as patriotic and sincere as Gabriele D' Annunzio to say that —

"The Italians, now that they have succeeded in crowning with unity the aspirations that had inflamed the purest spirits through the course of centuries, and in realizing the sublime dream of Dante and of Machiavelli, now offer us a singular instance of political dissension, of general discontent, of disaffection for their native land, of aversion for the State, of weariness such as it would be difficult to find in the history of any other nation"?

The following go a long way toward explaining the present distressful condition of the country: first, the introduction of the parliamentary system before the people were educated up to it; secondly, the megalomania that dictated the Triple Alliance, a large army and navy, and lavish expenditures of public moneys; thirdly, the creation of a vast and badly paid bureaucracy; fourthly, a wretchedly devised and wretchedly administered fiscal system; fifthly, the disintegrating effect of the struggle between the Quirinal and Vaticanism. On all of these some few words are necessary.

There are fashions in politics just as there are in dress or literature. To-day in Europe it is the monarchical system, with a leaning towards absolutism, that is most popular for the moment; fifty years ago it was the British parliamentary system that held the field

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Whenever a chance offered, it was copied or transplanted *en bloc*. As a consequence Europe is dotted with paper imitations of the British constitution, from which the real quickening spirit has gone. The system of party government is an accident even in England, where it has worked well as much through the defects as the excellences of the British people. Elsewhere it is a plagiarism which has worked badly, and nowhere more badly than in Italy. The country jumped at a bound from slavery to the fulness of freedom. There was no intermediate apprenticeship. The gulf that separated the old tyrannical absolutism of Austrian, Bourbon, and Papal rule from self-government with almost universal suffrage was bridged in a day.

THE RESULTS OF SUDDEN FREEDOM

The abruptness of the transition found the people incapable of making the best of their new-found liberty. Illiteracy was rampant; as nearly as one can now find out, over sixty-five per cent of the people thirty or forty years ago could neither read nor write. In the North the proportion of illiterates was two-fifths of the population, in the Papal States slightly over three-fifths, in the South four-fifths, and in Sicily and Sardinia even more. Everywhere were to be seen the blemishes born of long centuries of organized oppression and misgovernment. In the South especially, where a despotism at once weak and brutal relied upon soldiers of fortune for its defence and at times even called in the help of bandits and criminals, all respect for law, all sense that the state existed for the people, all idea of impartial and impersonal justice as between man and man, had disappeared. And when once the sense of even-handed and effective administration of the law is disembodied in a state, there arises that attitude of mind which in the Southern States of America has condoned lynching, which in Corsica has produced the scourge of the vendetta, in Sicily the Mafia, and in Naples the Camorra — the attitude of mind which sees in the action of private revenge the only remedy for the shortcomings of public justice. Acting on the vehement, secretive, and hot-blooded temperament of the Italians of the South, this notion that the individual alone is the final arbiter of right and wrong has generated a profound moral scepticism, and distrust of all public institutions has made each man an Ishmael among his fellows and spread abroad the essential spirit of anarchy.

Centuries of repression and grinding poverty, of servitude and low social organization, have borne their inevitable fruit in a decline of straightforwardness and mutual confidence and plain-dealing, and a general disbelief in honesty either as a duty or a policy of life. Against these corroding influences, religion and education have made little headway.

Nowhere, not even in Spain, is religion so entirely divorced from conduct, so much an affair of forms and ceremonies and images, as in Italy. Nor has education, except in a few of the Jesuit and military schools, supplied the requisite moral stimulus. Notwithstanding that education is compulsory between the ages of six and nine, and that the school attendance has risen from 1,000,000 in 1861 to nearly 3,000,000 in 1901, over half the entire population of the country is returned as illiterate.

When the idea of the State as a protector of the individual has departed, the weaker members of the community, feeling their inability to rough it, attach themselves to some powerful chief or patron, forward his interests, and fight his battles in return for the protection he can bestow on his followers. In Italy this relationship of patron and client endured longer and struck deeper roots than anywhere outside Corsica. It is still the all-pervading fact of Italian politics. The spirit of the "ring" permeates public life from the smallest commune to the royal household.

The event has shown, what one would naturally expect to be the case, that on a people of the antecedents, nature, and training I have described, the gift of parliamentary institutions was all but thrown away. For a time, indeed, the experiment worked with a superficial success. Through the war of liberation ran two distinct threads of political thought. Cavour worked for a united kingdom, Mazzini for a united republic; and from 1861 to 1880 the Chamber of Deputies was in a sense divided between the representatives of these two schools. The Right, made up of moderate Liberals who inherited the Cavourian traditions, ruled the country for the first fifteen years, defeated regionalism

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and reactionary sedition, carried on the war of 1866, acquired Venetia, and annexed Rome. Their downfall came in 1876, when the radical and republican Left carried the South. In a few years the Left itself decayed from internal causes, and from 1880 or thereabouts no dividing line has separated the two parties.

The history of Italian politics for the last twenty years is the history of clamorous groups, representing nothing except their own personal interests, and fighting one another like so many *condottieri*. For an Italian cabinet to be composed of members from every section of the Chamber is the common thing.

On February 6 the Saracco ministry fell. It was defeated by a combination of petty factions having nothing in common except the love of office. And that is a picture of the political life of Italy.

One of the first mistakes of the united kingdom was seeking to propitiate the adherents of the régime it had displaced, by maintaining them in their posts; it was obliged to reward its own followers by creating new ones. So grew up a vast and unnecessary civil service, filled by political influence, and badly paid. "For every man," runs the common Italian saying, "there are five *impiegati* (civil servants)." An underpaid bureaucracy means that the employees have to plunder to live, and except in the Post and Telegraph departments, which are fairly well run, the public morality of the Italian officials is little if at all above that of the Spanish. In the years 1890–94 one finds that for every crime committed by the populace "against the security of the State," no less than thirteen were committed by public officials.

The parliamentary system of Italy is three-quarters English; its system of local government, being introduced into Upper Italy by Napoleon and afterwards extended, is wholly French. The country is divided into over eight thousand communes, of every size and character. Each has an elected council which is the local parliament, and a junta which serves as an administrative board. The junta is presided over by the syndic, who is elected by secret ballot within the council and holds office for three years. Between the juntas and the central government stand the prefects, some sixty-five in number, who are supposed to keep a watchful eye on the local boards, correct abuses, and restrict them within the limits of their borrowing powers.

In the North the system has worked fairly well, but in the South, both in town and village, it has brought a train of abuses. Everywhere one may say that the "ring," which is Tammany on a small scale, controls the municipality. In the towns its influence takes outward form in contract-jobbing, the abuse of borrowing powers, and an absurd extravagance on theatres and fêtes; in the country, in the oppression of the poor by taxation, the maladministration of charitable funds, and unfair division of the communal lands.

At Palermo between $2,000,000 and $3,000,000 were spent on a theatre while the prefect was in Rome trying to raise enough money to build a hospital; and from Naples and Rome and nearly every town and hamlet in the country similar instances of peculation and jobbery could be adduced.

The prefects have lapsed into mere electioneering agents whose chief duty it is to see that a majority is procured for the party that appointed them. It is always forthcoming. The government never loses. The syndics sell the votes of their district to the highest bidder. The parliamentary register is in the keeping of the municipal juntas and can be altered at will. Gerrymandering, personation, and the stuffing of ballots are practised with the deftness of a Tammany "heeler."

The general elections are no guide whatever to popular opinion. Most of the people do not take the trouble to vote at all, thinking the right of suffrage a trick invented by the police to get them into trouble.

The deputies who are sent to Monte Citorio are nothing but the representatives of a clique. They are not in politics "for their health," neither are those who engineered their election. Their duty to the electors is confined to diverting public moneys to local uses, to pushing favorites for places, to acting as a conduit pipe for the distribution of patronage. Their duty to themselves is to feather their own nests as best they can. Nor if one may judge from the novelists of the past decade, and they are usually the most trustworthy authorities on the manners of their time, are the private character and conduct of the average Italian deputy much in advance of his conception of public duties.

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After the work of liberation was accomplished a wave of extravagant daring, of which the present depression is the ebb, swept over the country. A strong business administration, working tactfully and taking retrenchment and reform as its motto, might have made Italy prosperous if not rich, and contented if not exactly powerful. But megalomania swooped down upon the nation and hurried it from its proper task of domestic reform to strut and pose before the great powers of Europe. The people burned to make their influence felt abroad, to play a great part in the destinies of Europe. Free and independent Italy, they said, could never lower herself to become another Belgium or Switzerland.

The politicians played readily upon this feeling. The great theory of "naval equilibrium in the Mediterranean" was discovered and loudly trumpeted as essential to Italian security. Then it became clear all at once that the Pope might intrigue with France or Austria for the reconquest of his lost provinces. So the Triple Alliance was formed amid exultant pæans, and Italy fell to work on her army and navy with fresh patriotic ardor. One thing only was wanting — a colony; and Italy's cup of happiness ran over when the Powers allowed her a slice of Africa that nobody else would take.

Whatever name history may give to it, a noble burst of patriotism or the very frenzy of megalomania, Italy to-day finds herself loaded with a navy she cannot man, a colony she cannot govern, and an army at least twice as great as her necessities seem to call for. Millions upon millions of dollars have been spent upon armaments while Sicily was on the verge of rebellion and peasants were emigrating in thousands to Argentina and the United States to escape starvation. The splendid ironclads and the twelve army corps are but a poor set-off against 30,000,000 people struggling with poverty; and one cannot well escape the conclusion that the Triple Alliance has thrown upon Italy a naval and military burden she is not yet able to bear. Even its necessity from the Italian point of view is open to question.

This is not to deny that the hostility of France since 1870 has been both fierce and menacing, or that the position and intrigues of the Vatican justified some measure of precaution. The French were bitterly chagrined when the Italians, so far from coming to their aid in the Franco-Prussian War, took advantage of the withdrawal of the French troops to occupy Rome; and when they went a step further and joined the Austro-German alliance, French resentment knew no bounds. History offers no parallel to the relentless, covert war waged by France against her Transalpine neighbor from 1888 to 1898 — economic war, war through the press, war through her clerical allies, war through every diplomatic channel, war in every sense of the word short of actual hostilities in the field. But all this, while undeniable, may be met with the argument that neither Germany nor Austria can afford to see Italy under the heel of France, and that in consequence she gains no more security from the Triple Alliance than was already assured her by the stress of international rivalries.

THE STATE AND THE CHURCH

As to the Pope, great as was the offence which the forced surrender of his temporal power gave to earnest Catholics the world over, there was never any real likelihood of either France or Austria undertaking a holy crusade for its restoration. Vaticanism is an undoubted danger to Italy, but it is an internal danger wholly.

Catholics usually speak of the head of their Church as "the prisoner of the Vatican." No description could be more misleading. Leo XIII is as free and independent a potentate as any ruler on earth. By the Law of Guarantees, passed in 1871, his person is declared sacred; royal honors are to be paid him whenever he sets foot in the streets of Rome; he is exempt from the oath of allegiance and from all interference or investigation by public officials and the police; he is allowed to receive envoys from foreign states, who enjoy all the privileges and immunities of envoys accredited to the Quirinal; he may in return despatch nuncios to foreign governments; a generous endowment is yearly set aside for his use, and if the Pope prefers not to touch it, that can hardly be imputed to the blame of the Government; he is allowed to keep up guards; special facilities are given his couriers and messengers; his correspond-

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ence, by post or telegraph, is franked and free from inspection; and the meetings of the Conclave are wholly exempt from the supervision of the civil power. Considering that to the more immoderate section of Italian politicians the Pope wears simply the aspect of a Pretender, these provisions cannot be called ungenerous.

The quarrel in Italy is not, as it is so often called, a quarrel between Church and State, but between the State and the Roman Curia, or government of the Church.

At present both parties play a waiting game. The Pope still professes to believe in the possibility of a revival of at least some portion of his temporal power. The Quirinal, supported by four-fifths of the people of Italy, sets its face like a flint against anything that would impair the unity of the kingdom, while the Pope prohibits the faithful from taking any part in the election of the Chamber of Deputies and resolutely refuses to recognize the civil power.

That the Quirinal would very willingly see the antagonism ended and "loyal Catholics," who number, it is estimated, about a third of the electorate, rallying round the Crown, may well be believed. But it is not so certain that the Vatican would not prefer to have things go on as they are. Its continued hostility to the Quirinal is a guarantee in the eyes of foreign Catholics that the Church is really an international institution, and not bound down to the interests of any one country. Were the Pope to forego his temporal claims, to allow Catholics to exercise their right of suffrage in national elections, and to accept the subsidy annually voted him by the Italian government, he would at once create the suspicion that the Catholic Church had become a mere appendage to the Triple Alliance, and he would also, which is a mundane but very vital consideration, check if not wholly dam the stream of gifts and money that now flows into the Papal treasury. So long as Leo XIII. lives, no reconciliation can or will be made. Whether a new Pope and a new king will be able to come to terms remains to be seen.

THE GREATEST PROBLEM: FINANCE

But this, though a great, is not the greatest problem confronting Victor Emmanuel III. More immediately pressing is the question of finance. The war of liberation raised an immense public debt, and for many years after its birth the new kingdom showed more prodigality than wisdom in its public enterprises. Millions were voted for the building of railways and roads, the embankment of rivers, the drainage of marshes, while in Rome itself the government tried to rival the great works of the Emperors and Popes.

The State forced the banks into subsidizing public and private contractors by a reckless issue of paper money; it fostered many enterprises seemingly for the sole purpose of giving work to the unemployed at any cost. Taxation was high and more oppressive and less productive than it need have been.

The army and navy swallowed up more than their fair share of revenue, and were indeed mainly answerable for the recurring deficits. Italy in fact for many years has been discounting her future on a most grandiose scale and incidentally burning the candle at both ends. The public debt of the country stands at about $2,450,000,000, working out at rather more than $77.00 per head, which is all but as much as that of Great Britain. The budgets, after showing a surplus in the years 1894–1895, 1895–1896, 1896–1897, a deficit of over $200,000 for 1867–1898 and of $1,500,000 for 1898–1899 and a surplus of $1,000,000 for 1899–1900, are again threatened with an adverse balance. The estimates for the current financial year disclose a deficit of $3,800,000, and for 1901–1902 of $3,600,000. The total revenue is, roughly, $300,000,000, of which about $75,000,000 is expended on defence. On two points all Italian economists seem agreed: that the balance of the budget must not be compromised by any reduction of taxation, and that taxation has reached the highest point possible.

Two solutions alone, therefore, are indicated: either there must be a redistribution of taxes and the rich made to pay their fair share, or else a vigorous policy of retrenchment must be inaugurated. But retrenchment to be effective must first of all touch the army and navy. Even if the bureaucracy is remodelled, as it well might be, and the number of offices reduced by a good third and of officials by half, the real waste-pipe that drains the national resources would be left unstopped.

Moreover, there are certain costly reforms

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that cannot wait. The judiciary needs a thorough overhauling; the judges are underpaid, are by no means as independent of the politicians as they should be, and are often incompetent if not corrupt. The school system, too, is wretchedly inadequate; the masters receiving starvation wages, when they receive them at all. And above all else looms the great agricultural problem, which in Italy, as in Spain, is complicated by the *latifundia*.

With over 8,000,000 people, more than a quarter of the entire population, engaged in agriculture, the relationship between landowner and farmer, — which, as in Ireland, is slowly settling itself on the basis of coöperation or copartnership, — the social and economic conditions of the *contadini*, the difficulty of the waste-lands and of emigration to the towns or abroad — are among the really national problems of the country.

One thing is sure: whatever reforms are made, neither the army nor the navy will be suffered to decay. Italy will not retire from the Triple Alliance, and Italian finances will consequently for some years yet be precariously unstable.

But if one compares the Italy of to-day with the Italy of thirty years ago, one has to confess an immense improvement. However high the taxation, and however severe the poverty, the people manage to add nearly $250,000,000 a year to their national wealth, and the deposits in the savings banks show an annual increase of $5,000,000. Moreover, there is growing up a new industrial Italy, against which the mere æsthete declaims in vain. The modern spirit had to come, and even if it does show little reverence for the past and brings a host of foreign speculators and capitalists in its train, it still has within it the seed of a prosperous and regenerated Italy.

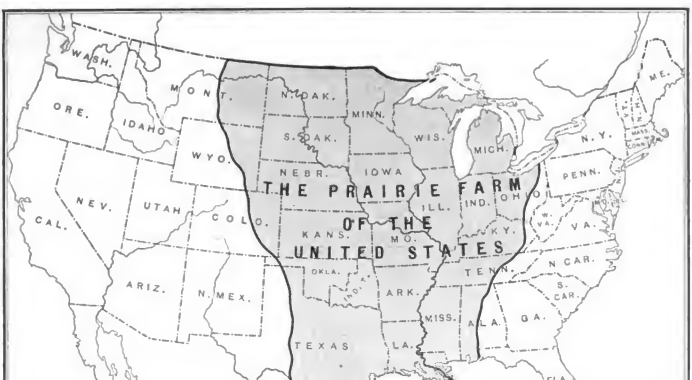
The industrial expansion of the last few years has been almost startling. The exports for 1900 were one-third greater than the average for 1891–1897. Silk exports valued in 1897 at $66,000,000 now promise to be over $100,000,000 for the current year. The cotton industry more than doubled its exports between 1897 and 1900. With the help of foreign capital Italy now produces almost all the steel she requires for her railroads and shipyards. The rivers are beginning to be harnessed for the supply of electricity. It is true native capital is still timid — the Italians have none of the speculative pluck of the Americans and Germans — and that most of the money needed for the industries comes from Berlin, Switzerland, and London, to a small extent, too, from New York. It is also true that except around Naples and Bari the new spirit has not touched the South. None the less, Italy is rapidly learning to supply her own needs, and beginning to compete in the international market.

The most interesting recent development is the growth of coöperative agencies in the agricultural districts. With village banks lending at an easy rate, buying seed and manure and machinery and reselling them at wholesale prices to their members; with coöperative creameries and bakeries, cattle insurance companies, a network of friendly societies and the beginnings of well-organized and scientific agricultural schools, — much has been done to raise the status of the peasant, who for centuries has been incredibly downtrodden, to free him from debt, and make him abandon his antiquated and exhausting methods of culture.

The utilitarianism of the Italy of to-day is not to be summed up solely in the hideous bridge which spans the embanked Tiber near the Castle of St. Angelo, or the electric cars that rush round the Forum of Trajan. It shows itself in a hundred departments of practical life. Not even in Germany, where they write about everything under the sun, has more been written about socialism in all its forms than in Italy. In jurisprudence, political economy, and especially in criminology and penology, as well as in such purely materialistic problems as drainage and street construction and hygiene, modern Italy has done excellent work. She is, in short, becoming Americanized.

Victor Emmanuel III. has succeeded to the rulership of a people that is not to be placed among the dying nations of the world. It has for a time sunk in a lethargy, but the hour of its awakening is at hand.

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OUR PRAIRIES AND THE ORIENT

THE GREATEST FARM IN THE WORLD TO BE BROUGHT INTO CLOSE COMMERCIAL RELATION WITH THE GREATEST POPULATION IN THE WORLD — A LOOK INTO A FUTURE IN EXPORTS YET UNDREAMED OF — THE CAPACITY OF THE PRAIRIES AND THE NEEDS OF ASIA

BY

WILLIAM R. LIGHTON

THE prairies of the United States comprise a stretch of territory approximately one thousand miles wide by twelve hundred miles long. They include the full width of Illinois, Iowa, and Nebraska, and half of Wyoming, and they extend from southern Texas to the boundary of British America, thus forming over one-third of the total area of the United States. In point of productive efficiency this is incomparably the richest third. Its riches do not lie in "pockets" or "fissures," which will be worked out and exhausted by and by; neither do they depend upon the development of any artificial industrial scheme. They are the safe and sure riches of the farm.

We have, then, a farm of more than one million square miles, capable of producing everything from cotton to wheat, capable of yielding an abundance to feed and clothe all the swarming millions of the earth. No other nation has anything like this resource; nowhere is there a similar area with similar physical conditions. It is strange that these facts have been so little emphasized. Perhaps their simplicity baffles comprehension no less than their magnitude.

It must not be supposed that this great region has been fully exploited; for that is very far from the truth. Consistent exploitation has hardly begun; and in the very nature of things it can never be finished.

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There is no limitation possible to be put upon it. It can give direct sustenance to more people than can be sustained by all the rest of the North American continent. If the United States were forever to concern itself only with its domestic market, with no large care beyond the problem of filling its own stomach and covering its own back, then these wide gardens of the interior would one day contain our densest population; just as in the Chinese Empire, which has been ruled by an ancient hostility to foreign relations, population has centred in those districts where the soil offers the most abundant fruitage.

OUR PRAIRIES YET SPARSELY SETTLED

Yet production of farm crops employs fewer men than are required for handling, milling, and marketing them. As we look more and more to other lands for purchasers of our grain and flour, our cotton and its fabrics, our meat, wool, and hides, the tendency will be to maintain our chief centres of population in manufacturing and commercial capitals near our coasts. The prairies have tried to build large cities, in order to establish their independence of other regions; but it has been for the most part a misguided ambition. It is safe to say that for many years to come there will be no mammoth cities upon our interior plains. There is no need of them. Towns upon the prairies are now needed only for the work of gathering our farm products together, putting them into marketable form, and shipping them away. Chicago is, of course, out of the argument. Chicago owes its size and strength to its location at the head of the lake traffic; only in part is it an interior town. Chicago would be impossible out upon the prairies.

At present, the prairie states contain less than one-tenth of the people of the nation; and of these, much less than one-half are dwellers upon the farms and ranges. Striking an average between the well-inhabited humid region and the sparsely settled arid districts, it is well within the truth to say that, exclusive of the cities and towns, there are not more than two persons to each square mile. In some places, as in Illinois and Iowa, the proportion is much greater; elsewhere, as in Montana and Wyoming, it is much less.

Almost all the land that is now tillable is nominally occupied, — that is, the title has passed from the government to private owners; but there is comparatively little even of the arable acreage that is fully improved, and there are still many millions of acres of other land subject to entry. Certainly there is room and there will soon be legitimate industrial opportunities upon the central prairies for at least fifty times their present population.

A REVOLUTIONARY WESTERN PLAN

The people of other parts of the country have discredited the scheme for reclaiming the arid lands of the West. Whatever interest Eastern men take in irrigation is extrinsic rather than vital, curious rather than profound; they seem to regard the idea as but another palpitation of the overwrought Western brain. But that is all wrong. Although parts of the West may have been monomaniacal in politics, Western delusions have hardly been so great as Eastern prejudices against the larger development of the prairies. The West has as yet proposed no plan for the future that has anything like the practical value of the reclamation of the desert lands. If results be the criterion of judgment, then Western railroad building will be dwarfed in comparison. The accomplishment of present designs will contribute to our national wealth, strength, and prestige, more than is now contributed by all the factories of the East.

When the early Spanish adventurers entered New Mexico and Arizona from the south, more than 350 years ago, they found isolated bands of Pueblo Indians accumulating river flood-waters, which they distributed by rude methods over infinitesimal grain-fields and garden-patches. Their engineering skill was small, so that there was almost no concerted plan for constructing reservoirs and canals; the methods in use were only makeshifts. The irrigable lands in the narrow valleys were accounted too valuable for occupation for dwellings; accordingly, the Pueblo villages were built far up on the cañon walls, which were destitute of soil. It was those small cultivated tracts in the valleys that

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kept the Pueblo tribes intact for centuries, though they were surrounded by harassing enemies. Upon the incursion of Anglo-Saxon civilization in the southwest, the newcomers were compelled to adopt the ancient method of agriculture; for no other method was possible. At the present time the whites are using several canals whose banks are known to be at least four hundred years old.

When the Mormons went to possess the Salt Lake Basin the lands were an arid waste; but there were goodly rivers discharging volumes of fresh water into the lake. There is pathos, even tragedy, in the story. With infinite faith, the Saints planted in the desert sands all that remained of their small store of potatoes; and then, with infinite toil, they constructed rude ditches and flumes of hollowed logs, to divert some of the water of the streams upon their fields. The result was almost a miracle; for out of the desolate earth came a bountiful harvest. Small wonder that those simple folk thought themselves especially favored of God!

From those little beginnings has grown the unshakable Western belief in the efficacy of the water-cure for the ills of aridity. A few years ago, irrigation in the western part of the United States was nothing more than an unimportant local custom; but it must soon be recognized as a large part of the policy of empire. A few years ago the idea had almost no strenuous advocate but the land-boomer; now it has its prophets and ministers among those men whose claim to wise statesmanship is most secure. So long ago as 1894 — a very long time in the history of this subject — Hon. Thomas B. Reed, in the course of an address at Pittsburg said: —

"Mighty as has been our past, our resources have just been touched upon, and there is wealth beyond the Mississippi which in the not distant future will astonish even the dwellers on the shores of Lake Michigan. From the time my eyes first rested on the great uncultivated plains which lie between the Mississippi and the Pacific Ocean, my waking dreams have been filled with visions of the incalculable wealth which the touch of living water will bring to life from those voiceless deserts."

It may be said that the past twenty years cover the whole life of the present agitation. All that lies before 1880 is mythical, unsubstantial. Twenty years ago Colorado had no wealth but that of its mines; indeed, it is likely that most persons think of Colorado as being even now a mining community, pure and simple. Yet Captain H. M. Chittenden, of the United States Engineer Corps, said officially in 1898: "Already in the greatest mineral-producing states in the West, California and Colorado, irrigated agriculture yields a greater wealth of product than the mines." Most of this mighty change has been wrought within the last decade by private and corporate enterprise on an insignificant fraction of the land that may be reclaimed.

Any man who doubts the power of water as an agent of regeneration in the arid section should look upon the communities of Greeley, Longmont, Boulder, and Loveland, and be forever rid of his doubts.

A MIRACLE BY IRRIGATION

In the year 1888 I spent some time in the town of Phœnix, Ari., which was then in the very heart of a superheated principality of desolation, almost as barren of life as the coppery sky above it. I listened curiously to those who seemed to be talking in their dreams of what they meant to do with the dammed waters of the Gila River. I could not believe that that was wise talk: their terrible sun had made them mad! But Phœnix has indeed risen out of the fire. That baked expanse of sand is now rich with orchards of figs, almonds, and citrous fruits, and beautiful with long avenues of palms, — a new Paradise fashioned out of the refuse materials of Hades. Nor is this an exceptional case. The most valuable, because the most productive, farm lands of the United States are in those parts of the arid region where irrigation is practised; for agriculture by irrigation yields larger crops of nearly all the staples than are produced upon the same acreage in the humid districts; and agriculture is even now the chief resource of nearly all of the arid states.

The question now presented is not the desirability of irrigation; it is a plain question of the economic practicability of a wholesale application of it throughout the western half of the prairie country. The ninety-eighth meridian, which cuts Kansas in half, has been fixed, after thorough experiment, as the line that divides the arid from the

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humid section. East of that line irrigation is practised with great advantage, though crops can usually be grown without such aid; but to the west, the irrigating ditch is necessary as a condition precedent to constant crops; without it, crop failure is the rule. Thousands of settlers, in courageous ignorance, have demonstrated this fact at their own great cost.

There are three agencies through which irrigation may be carried on: private, corporate, and governmental. Each of these has its legitimate province. Private enterprise will accomplish the least in net results; for many reasons, it can hardly extend beyond the landowner's improvement of his own estate. At many places in Kansas, Nebraska, the Dakotas, and elsewhere, individual farmers have achieved great success by sinking wells and constructing small storage basins, from which the water is distributed to the crops. This practice involves no elaborate or costly plant; a single windmill will pump enough water to irrigate a farm; and of course this plan can be pursued in places remote from the streams. In other places, where access to a stream was possible, canals were dug for diverting the water directly; or primitive waterwheels were built, whose buckets would discharge their contents into troughs and ditches. So long as the supply of water was adequate, all went well; but as the number of users increased, the flow of the stream was often seriously diminished or altogether cut off from lands below.

Individual effort in development was necessarily haphazard, with no tendency toward a central or common reservoir. Such an establishment has been regarded by our people as semi-public in character, and it requires the investment of considerable capital. Corporate organization, therefore, was the logical successor to private enterprise. Corporations, largely capitalized, could build large ditch systems, and get over engineering and other administrative obstacles which the lesser power had found insurmountable; they were thus able to organize the work over large districts, and to give it orderly direction. The corporate method of procedure, however, was at first but a continuation of the private method on a wider scale, with no ability to master the final difficulty. The companies did nothing but tap the streams and take the water that stood at their head gates. In the summer months, when the water was most needed, the streams were shrunken to their least dimensions; and as the companies and the users of water multiplied, those farthest upstream would appropriate the entire flow. As corporate interests were larger than private, this condition bred an increase in the volume, bitterness, and expense of litigation.

But the Western mind is audacious. Its genius could not work another miracle of the loaves and fishes; but it did something quite as effective in results when it elaborated plans for the storage of flood-waters. There was a double incentive for effort in that direction. Almost every year, the cities and farms of the lower Missouri and Mississippi valleys were losing many millions of dollars by the fury of spring freshets; and at the same time the arid region was seeing millions of dollars' worth of water run wastefully away. By and by came the thought of building reservoirs large enough to catch the spring floods and to preserve them against the time of need upon the farms of the upper valleys; and thus of lessening, in some degree, the havoc wrought by the freshets downstream.

The possibility of totally preventing the floods is yet conjectural. It may be accomplished, but it will require very extensive works, whose construction will occupy many years. But the primary value of reservoirs will be the storage of water for use in irrigation. It is evident, however, that every dam, however small, will effect something in checking the spring torrents; but a considerable part of the Mississippi flood originates from the rains of the humid regions.

At first the idea of flood-storage was so bold and so doubtful as almost to carry its own condemnation. But there is no speculative undertaking so large that it cannot engage capital for its promotion. Indeed, American capital seems fond of just such risks. The project had hardly found expression before the ubiquitous corporations appeared, with unlimited daring and almost unlimited millions of money, ready to venture upon the enterprise.

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It would hardly have been practicable — certainly it was not a measure of economy — to build the reservoirs in the wide prairie valleys, and thus store the waters on the immediate sites of their future use. The work had to be done in the cañons or gorges toward the mountains, where a comparatively small expenditure would suffice for accumulating vast volumes of water. As an indication of what may be accomplished in proper locations, it has been estimated by Captain Chittenden that to raise the outlet of Yellowstone Lake by one foot would represent the storage of nearly 4,000,000,000 cubic feet of water, in addition to the present contents of the lake, — or enough to irrigate about 90,000 acres of land.

TO RECLAIM FIFTEEN NILE VALLEYS

It must not be supposed that the advocates of irrigation see visions of one wide expanse of luxuriant life on what is now the arid region. The irrigation unit is the acre-foot: that is, after experiment it is now said that if twelve inches of water can be put each year upon the arid and semi-arid lands of the high plains, properly distributed at the time of the crops' need, success in agriculture may be attained. Captain Chittenden says that "omitting the Pacific Coast watershed and the subhumid tracts east and west of the strictly arid zone, it is not likely that over one million square miles can properly be considered as the total area over which the storage of water must be systematically developed." This estimate includes many inter-mountain valleys and plains which do not belong to the prairies. From these one million square miles, the average run-off of waste water is two inches annually, — or enough, if it can be saved and used, to irrigate one-sixth of the entire area and bring it to productiveness. This will mean the reclamation from profitless aridity of over 100,000,000 acres, — a territory more than twice as large as the state of Nebraska, and more than six times as large as the portion of Nebraska that is now cultivated; or more than fifteen times as large as the cultivated valley of the Nile. Surely, this is a prize worth winning.

The apparent need is that the construction of reservoirs shall be managed by the General Government. That would obviate the chief causes of failure, and would place the individual farmer upon a more secure footing. There must also be an intelligent modification of existing laws respecting both land and water rights, to meet actual needs. Then the prairies will enter with confidence upon a future of limitless achievement. In the arid and humid zones together there will be more than one quarter of a billion acres of farms whose productive power is unequalled in the world; and there will be, besides, 400,000,000 acres of grazing land capable of sustaining herds the like of which has never been seen. This is not a vision; it is the visible shadow of coming events.

OUR PRAIRIE SURPLUS

The question arises: What is it to profit us, though we pile the fruits of husbandry mountain-high over all our inland plains? We can feed and clothe ourselves, to be sure; but it is the use and value of the surplus product of man's effort that make for his permanent wealth, power, and welfare. How shall we use our prairie surplus?

Heretofore, the chief argument offered in behalf of their development has been that it will open new lands for settlement to the excess population of the crowding Eastern states. So long as our national life was the life of the domestic circle, we had reason to be anxious about the ultimate overpopulation of Eastern centres of industry; we thought with grave fears of the time to come when we, too, should have our Manchesters and Birminghams, with their people out of work and wanting the means to live. We were going to make homes for these people upon the vacant prairies; there they could satisfy their belly-needs; there, as they prospered, they would create a new market for the products of our factories, and they would aid in the development of Western mining by bringing agricultural supplies nearer to the mines, thus reducing the cost of life to the miners. The whole argument was constricted and illiberal. The prairie farms were to be hapless refuges for those whom our national policy had first pauperized.

Now our horizon is lifting and is wider. A distinctive and precise foreign policy of our own is clearing the farther air, and from

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the summits of our mountains of surplus products we are looking abroad and beholding distant opportunities. There is every reason to believe that we shall soon lead in supplying foodstuff and cotton fabrics to all the waiting markets of the Orient. In some of those markets we are already supreme, though we have hardly realized it. If the present American contention concerning the Chinese question is to prevail, and the Empire is preserved in its integrity, and as a free field for the commerce of all nations, then China will be our chief patron.

No reasonable man can doubt the great future of the Pacific world. As Professor Reinsch has indicated in his recent volume upon "World Politics," the lands that border upon the Pacific contain nearly one-half the total population of the globe; and because of inadequate transportation facilities upon land, the people are more dependent than Western nations upon maritime commerce. "The whole perspective of the industrial world will thus be changed," he writes; "what formerly seemed almost the backyard of the world is now to become the very centre of interest. Japan bids fair to rival the great island kingdom of the West." China is to be the goal of this new activity; and China will be for centuries, perhaps forever, too remote to render practicable overland commercial communication with Europe. Traffic with the Orient will be seaborne. The Greater United States is China's nearest Western neighbor; China's needs are our opportunities.

It is a market without bounds. Four hundred millions of people are living within an area one-half that of the United States; they are using the rudest of agricultural and industrial methods, which limit the man's effort and his productive efficiency. They are subsisting in the most meagre fashion; their needs are great. We have plenty to offer them; yet it is only within the last ten years that China has really discovered America as a source of supply, and it is within five years that we have really waked to the fact that China is a market worth our while. We have been used to ascribing our limited intercourse to the self-imposed isolation and conservatism of the Chinese; but a large share of responsibility is due to our own conservative prejudices

It is not my purpose to discuss the Chinese trade situation, but only to indicate what the prairies may do in that market. It is sufficient to say that at the beginning of the present trouble in China, not one-tenth of the Empire was open to foreign trade, even by indirect means; nevertheless (taking into account the change in value of Chinese currency, which is the basis of the estimate) the value of import trade had nearly doubled within twelve years. Most of the increase was in the years 1898 and 1899.

THE MERE BEGINNING OF CHINESE TRADE

Yet how little has been done to take advantage of this new opportunity is shown by the fact that in 1899 there were but 185 clearances of merchant steamships from the United States for all of Asia, as against 5390 clearances for Europe. In 1898 our exports to Europe reached the value of $981,000,000, while our exports to all of Asia were of the value of only $47,000,000. Yet by many rights the Asiatic markets are ours. San Francisco is nearer than Marseilles to Hongkong by 2000 miles, and the old conditions of shipping are now so far modified that the great width of open ocean is no longer a hinderance to us. Roughly stated, 3000 tons of coal are necessary for the trip from the United States to the Chinese coast; therefore, as we have no intermediate coaling stations on the direct run, ships of less than 4000 tons' burden would be ineffective. But our Asiatic trade is opening to us at a time when the problem of long-distance ocean transportation has found practical solution in the building of large steel-hulled steamers.

Mr. E. T. Chamberlain, United States Commissioner of Navigation, says that "if the opportunity is promptly seized upon by the United States, the changed conditions may be made almost immediately the source of enormous addition to our national wealth. . . . In the competition between the Suez route and the direct route across the Pacific, Europe will be handicapped by the canal tolls. The appearance of large steamships on the Pacific opens the way also for fast steamships; and here, too, because of the shorter distance of the direct route, the United States have the advantage of nations which must use the Suez Canal."

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Although the intrinsic value of our trade with China is not great, the percentage of gain within the last five years is significant. Our exports to that country in 1899 were in value double those of 1896, — an increase exceeded only by Japan.

Our commercial prestige in China should be advantageously affected by the attitude of our government in the present international struggle. The behavior of the administration has been in rather startling contrast to that of other Powers; our government has considered Chinese interests no less than its own; its actions admit of no interpretation but one of fairness and honor, in keeping with the past relations of the two nations; it has no wish but that the Empire may remain intact. Consistent adherence to this policy should surely earn for us the consideration of a people intelligent enough to appreciate its meaning.

But the chief reason for our hope of control in Chinese markets is that we have to sell what the Chinese must buy. The relative importance of American factory products is overvalued, as compared with agricultural. In 1899, 62 per cent of our exports were agricultural products; in 1898, 69 per cent. At times our manufactures may lead in the trade with China; but that will not be permanently true. The Chinese are artisans by instinct; they have in their own land immeasurable resources for developing the mechanical arts and manufactures, and they will experience in a constantly increasing degree the need for profitable employment of their own labor. As they learn Western methods, they will do at home a great deal of what the West is now doing for them in mills and factories and shops.

But they will find limitations in supplying themselves with the staple crops of the farm; they have not adequate means. One of our fixed notions is that Chinese labor is ruinously cheaper than our own; and so it is, if we consider only the wage of the individual laborer, but not if we take into account his productive power. It has been shown that with the methods now employed, fifty Chinamen have hardly the productive efficiency of one American agriculturist. As the Chinese become learned in scientific agriculture, adopt modern methods and machinery, and increase individual efficiency, the discrepancy in the prices of labor will certainly diminish. This has been proved true in cases where native laborers have been educated and employed in manufacturing industries. As these conditions are regulated in obedience to economic laws, and the Chinese farmer becomes an actual competitor of the Western man, the prices of soil products will depend primarily upon land values and upon natural crop conditions. In those particulars, our prairies will have an immense advantage; and it will be found that the Chinese can buy the staple food-crops in the United States for less than the cost of producing them at home. A study of the details of the trade relations of the last five years shows that this truth is already appreciated. Chinese agriculture will consist in the main of the cultivation of special products. Like England, and even like our own Eastern states, China will find it impossible to raise the principal food-crops in competition with the big prairies, where the conditions for their growth are perfect. Our principal offerings in future commerce with the Far East will be cotton, wheat, corn, and other foodstuffs.

A MARKET FOR COTTON, FLOUR, AND CORN

It must be remembered, too, that when the West tries to sell its manufactures in the Orient, the people must first be educated to their use. This is not true with regard to agricultural products. With these there are no prejudices to be overcome; the Chinese know their value, and the market is already made and waiting.

As regards China as a market for our cotton, it was in 1896 that the balance of Chinese trade turned in favor of the United States. In 1897 our cottons were still more successful as against European competition. Mr. F. E. Taylor, statistical secretary to the Inspector General of Chinese customs, wrote that "the favor which American [cotton] goods find in the Chinese market is due to their cheapness." Sir Charles Beresford wrote in "The Break-Up of China," that in the ten years from 1887 to 1897 America had increased her interest in the Chinese importation of cotton goods by 121 per cent in quantity and 59½ per cent in value, while the interest of Great Britain and of India in

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similar goods had decreased 13¾ per cent in quantity and 8 per cent in value. Consul General Goodnow reported from Shanghai in January, 1900: —

"The cotton cloths dominating the market in northern China and now challenging trade in central China are from America. We can control this market so long as we have an equal entrance into all China, especially as freight lines from our country are multiplied; and when the Nicaraguan canal is built, no other than American cotton goods need apply in China."

In 1898 the United States sold to China cotton to the value of $6,944,520; and in 1899 the sales had increased to $10,312,000, or about twice the value of our entire trade with that country for any year prior to 1896, and more than half of our entire sales of cotton goods to the world in 1899. In 1898 Japan bought from the United States unmanufactured cotton to the value of $5,839,708; in 1899, $8,849,117. A large part of this raw cotton is made up for the Chinese market.

There is no competition which the United States must meet in placing wheat flour upon the Chinese markets. Although other countries get credit for a part of the traffic, the entire importation is of American origin. It is quite safe to say that, if trade is fully developed, we shall sell more wheat to China than is consumed at home. That is a market that cannot be taken from us. In those places where the trade has gained a foothold, the increase in sales is remarkable. In 1898 the Chefoo importation was valued at $76,000, and in 1899, at $260,000. The figures for all of China show importations in 1899 of the value of $2,298,033, as compared with $1,231,650 in 1898 — an increase of almost 100 per cent in a single year.

Our trade with China in Indian corn has been the least developed, but there is reason to believe that corn will before long head the list of our exports. That would be most desirable; for of all the prairie crops, we have the largest annual surplus in corn, and there is difficulty in finding a satisfactory market. In the customs reports for Chefoo, for the June quarter of 1899, appears an item showing the importation of about 3300 tons of Indian corn. Consul Fowler wrote at the time: —

"I wish to call attention to the entry, 'Indian Corn,' and to say that, so far as known, this is the first entry of Indian corn in the customs returns in China, although this is a splendid field. . . . It is not necessary to tell the natives here the good qualities of corn as food. It is not necessary to teach them how to prepare it, nor to oust any other food product. Corn is, and has been for years, the principal article of food in this province. The only trouble is, there is never enough to supply the demand. This chance to supply over 30,000,000 corn-consuming people I laid before the American public; and on this side I got the Chinese to take it up, got Chinese papers to speak of it, and kept on writing to America to men who are spending thousands of dollars in Europe to teach Europeans the use of corn in order to increase the demand; but 'China is a rice-eating country,' they said; 'no use trying.' . . . Then it was found that parties in Kobe, Japan, had quietly sent to the United States and brought over 100,000 bushels of corn, and they have been shipping it here ever since. So Japanese merchants derive the benefit of all my work. While it is true that America sells the corn, still some one else is getting the profit, and Japan the credit."

We must bring our Western prairies up to the fullest measure of their fruitfulness; we must found in the Pacific an American merchant marine; we must secure a canal to connect our Gulf ports with the Pacific; and we must dig up from the dusty deeps of memory all that we have forgotten since our school days about the lands of the far East, which we are now to dominate. We have our work cut out for us.

Surely, Walt Whitman established himself as a prophet when he wrote these lines: —

"I chant the new empire grander than any before,
as in a vision it comes to me,
I chant America the mistress, I chant a greater
supremacy,
I chant projected a thousand blooming cities yet
in time on those groups of sea-islands,
My sail-ships and steam-ships threading the archipelagoes,
My stars and stripes fluttering in the wind,
Commerce opening, the sleep of ages having
done its work, races reborn, refresh'd,
Lives, works, resumed — the object I know
not —
but the old, the Asiatic, renew'd as it must be,
Commencing from this day surrounded by the
world."

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THE UNKNOWN AUTHOR AND THE PUBLISHER

WHY "VOLUNTEER" BOOK MANUSCRIPTS ARE WELCOMED BY PUBLISHERS — WHY ALL MANUSCRIPTS ARE READ — THE POINT OF VIEW OF A PUBLISHERS' READER — TYPES OF MANUSCRIPTS AND THE LABOR THAT MUST BE WASTED ON THEM

BY

A PUBLISHERS' READER

"THERE," says the author as yet unpublished; "the manuscript is finished, is even type-written, 'tied-up, ticketed, and labelled' and forwarded to the publisher, with directions as to its return, but I am a nobody as yet. *My* manuscript will not be read. It will be returned, possibly without being unwrapped. To get anything read these days one must have influence."

So he gets this influence — or thinks he does — through a letter of introduction written by some one who has "influence" with the publisher.

The result is that the letter carries not the slightest weight, and the chances are that the letter and not the manuscript is the unread contribution.

For the Great Unpublished should believe this of all things: *Every manuscript submitted is given a chance;* never a one is returned unconsidered, and read often several times. The house for which the writer of these confessions spends himself has the invariable rule that each manuscript be read by two persons, and if one of these gives hint of merit, it is passed to a third. It should be apparent to every one in these days why this should be so. There have been too many instances where publishers have made small fortunes from "first books," — books whose manuscripts have been submitted without preliminary introductions, unsought and unheralded. Indeed, there is more chance of financial success with "first books" than with those written by authors of established reputations, for these latter are justified in demanding heavy royalties, which cut deep into the profits.

The numerous instances of the great success of "first" books, written by "new men," have established admirable precedents. Considering the matter strictly from the financial point of view, one can never say when, in looking through the day's batch, one is to come upon a second "David Harum," a second "Peter Sterling," or a second "Eben Holden." If the unpublished author will reflect upon the matter, he will soon realize that the publisher *must* look for him with *more* eagerness than he is looking for the publisher; because, if the author fails to "place" his manuscript, he loses no more, financially, than the price of paper and ink, and he can try other publishers. He is not limited to this one chance; whereas the publisher has only this one chance on this manuscript, and if he fails to accept a "David Harum," loses, we will say, something in the neighborhood of a quarter of a million dollars.

So the possibility of being neglected should never discourage even the most diffident, the least self-confident. Remember an axiom: If you submit a manuscript, it will be read; if it is good enough, it will be published, — published whether your name be Rudyard Kipling or Sarah Brown.

It is *not* the men of established reputations who are sought for so painfully; these already have found their publisher and in a great majority of cases are bound to one particular House. They are for all other Houses out of the market. The "New Man" is the free lance; he is drifting hither and thither, ready to be snapped up by the first bidder; then, too, the arrived author's limit of success can be pretty well gauged, — so-and-so will sell 5000, so-and-so 10,000, — but who shall say how far

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the "New Man" will go? "A first book by a new author, and a good book at that!" The average bookseller will order more copies than of a new novel by Henry James.

It would interest and surprise the pessimists, could they but know how the game goes in the editorial office; could they but understand how easy — and *not* how difficult — it is for even fair work to pass muster. It is true that it is easier to induce the publisher to accept a novel than it is to get the public to buy it. As a matter of course, the Reader for the House must have his standard. The public, too, has its own; but the public's standard is determined only by *published* books — books that have been deemed good enough to print. On the other hand, the Reader must pass in review hundreds upon hundreds of manuscripts that are — ninety-nine out of a hundred of them — impossible. How easy it is, then, for even the moderately good book to stand forth resplendent from the sombre background of worthlessness! How easy it is to judge it not by standards of real actual excellence, but by those of the "unavailables" in whose company it is found.

All volunteer manuscripts, then, have their chance — are considered. But it does not follow that each and every one is read from cover to cover. Some can be pronounced unavailable after a reading of a few pages or chapters; a larger number hold out illusive hopes of better ahead through the first chapter; a few do not prove hopeless till the middle of the story; still fewer are read to the very end before decision is reached.

However, long experience develops a certain instinct, a certain *flair*. If the author has a good story to tell, there will be an unmistakable sense of mastery of words in his very introduction; a convincing feeling of power of presentation in the very first page. The unpublished will never know, can never understand, the infinite relief, the sensation of actual exhilaration, that invades the Reader of Many Manuscripts when he realizes that here at last is something good — not merely popular necessarily, but a book earnestly done and with a knowledge of the tools. Nor could the author's dearest friend labor so diligently to get the book accepted than does the Reader in such case.

More people are writing to-day than ever before; constantly the "New Man" is coming to the front with his thousands and tens of thousands of copies sold. While these lines are being written, there is very little doubt that somewhere between the Oceans an unknown and unpublished author is at work upon a story that will soon be "the literary sensation of the year." It stands to all good reason that it behooves the publisher to discover him. Obviously this is so. Was not the "Red Badge of Courage" thus written and the "Gentleman from Indiana" and "Plain Tales," and others, and still others, and still others? The history of publishing teems with just such "finds."

So remembering all these things and possibly remembering "finds" of his own, the Reader attacks his pile of manuscript in much the same spirit as the miner his work of prospecting, disappointed from hour to hour, yet hoping always that the next wrapper removed, the next stone turned, may uncover the chef-d'œuvre or the mine; or if not the next, why, then, the next, or the next after that, or the next after that, and so on to the end, — always cheerfully expectant and almost always disappointed.

For so many — so very, very many — of the manuscripts are so very — so very, very — bad. The great difficulty seems to be that the writers confuse literature and life, and hold to the foolish mistake that the first is of more importance than the last. They have believed that the way to equip themselves for their profession is to read and study other novels; that they must — in a word — be literary. Error, hopeless and complete, and resulting in stories that at the very best and by the most elastic stretch of charity can be only mediocrities. The great bulk of declined manuscripts falls under this head, and the author, seeing that his work is like that of others who are published and successful, fails to understand the reason for the refusal to publish.

In these manuscripts you shall find the stock incidents, the stock characters, the stock episodes that have done duty since the days of Hawthorne and Cooper. Is it a novel of the South? Behold the General with his inevitable "damme, sir" and mint julep; behold the young man, newly arrived from "up North" and falling in love with the one available girl of the community; behold the com-

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plication brought about by the young girl's brother and the catastrophe precipitated by conflicting sectional instincts! Invariably does this kind begin with the expected arrival of the Northern stranger, and no sooner does the wearied Reader of Many Manuscripts discover in the first chapter the old negro hitching up the decrepit horse to the broken-down conveyance, when promptly the entire panorama of the story rises up — a ghost of other long-dead stories — and stands despairing in the eye of the mind.

Is it a story of Colonial Virginia? So, in the opening paragraphs the "gentle" Reader is ungently transported to the market place of the town on the morning of a public event. Behold the old familiar "Burgess" with his old familiar, "Why, how now, Mistress Nancy, and whither away so bravely bedecked?" as the heroine "trips lightly" — they always trip lightly in the colonial romance — upon the scene.

But ah — most frequent of all, it is the novel of Cavalier and Roundhead. Alas for the *naïveté* of it, alas for the guilelessness of it; with its "beshrew me's" and its "and thou lovest me's"; its Puritan maiden in love with the Cavalier, or its Cavalier damsel in love with the Puritan stalwart; and, as if for the first time in the world, upon the title page, inevitably, *inevitably*, this inscription: "*From the memoirs of one Perkyn Warbeck* (or whatever the name), *Sometime Field Cornet in his Majesty's Troop of Horse.*"

It is hard to read this kind; one knows what is to follow. How easy it is to foretell the vicissitudes of the romance. How surely it can be prophesied that the { Cavalier / Puritan } in love with the { Puritan / Cavalier } will get into trouble because of that fatal passion, and be misunderstood and misjudged as a traitor. How accurately can that battle, which will occur in Chapter XV, be foreseen, how positive from the very start may one be of the little imitation strut of the little imitation mannikin — copied from those literary Godey books of the historical romancers, Scott and Weyman. How certain one is of the demureness of the Puritan maid, how positive of the "roystering" swagger of the Cavalier blade.

Fustian, stuffing, sawdust, rhetoric, "damme, sir," "what ho there," "beshrew me," and all the rest of it, — what a labor lost, what effort unconsciously misdirected!

One pities this kind, but there are some at whom one can afford to be indignant. These are they who know better, who are *not* unpublished, but, "watching the market," pilfer from former successes.

There is quick work with this kind, for their insincerity is apparent from the very first. The petty thief stealing an overcoat risks at least the thirty days of the law. But these literary pickpockets are lower even than he, for they know no law can reach them, and they write with the avowed object of selling, — selling stolen goods, — and they forfeit the right to be resentful when the publisher refuses to act as their pawnbroker or "fence." A case in point came to hand not sixty days since, where a publishing house was asked to consider an "historical romance," signed by a name known to every magazine reader in the United States. Before the end of the first chapter, the thief had embroiled his hero in a duel and had presented him, while at sword's play with his adversary, composing a set of verses, pinking his foe at the close of the *envoy*.

The Reader of Many Manuscripts, it may be believed, disposes of these gentlemen in short order, preferring to put his time to the better purpose of considering blundering, clumsy originality, so only it be conceived in a spirit of sincerity.

That is the word to end upon, *sincerity*, sincerity, and again and again sincerity. If the unpublished is sincere, if he takes his profession seriously, if honestly he tries to present life as he sees it (not as the public have pretended to like to see it), then he is the "New Man" for whom a hundred clashing presses are waiting, for whom every House is searching. He may not be accepted at once, but his work is watched, he himself is kept in view and in mind. Encouragement, even to the advancing of royalty upon work yet to be written, is awaiting him; and not only will his manuscripts be read as earnestly and seriously as he has written them, but in the end his work will be published, and with all the energy and resource of which the House is capable pushed to the extremest limits of its circulation.

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MR. STEPHEN PHILLIPS'S "HEROD"

A WORTHY theme, the story of a weak soul wrought to madness by a strong love; a worthy manner, the simple dignity of sure literary craftsmanship; noble verse, the untrammelled flow of genuine English rhythms, — all these are to be found in "Herod," and give this new poem an unusual significance.

Whether it be a good acting play or not is a matter of small consequence, for of such we have a plenty, and the supply is not likely to run short. But a good poem is rare in our recent literature, and worthy poetry should be held precious and welcome at any time.

The most striking characteristic of the poem is the fitness of its versification; such verses as the following would be hard to parallel in recent poetry: —

> "Let all the sounds of building rise to me
> By day, by night, — and now let anvils clang.
> Melodious axes ring through Lebanon,
> Masons let me behold so far aloft
> They crawl like flies, ant-like artificers,
> Swarming with tiny loads, and laborers
> Hither and thither murmuring like bees."

Here the rhythms fit the sense like a well-made garment.

> "Let all the sounds of building rise to me
> By day, by night"

is resonant with hammer blows;

> "Melodious axes ring through Lebanon"

is a line that has in it the echoing sweep of chopping woodsmen;

> "Masons let me behold so far aloft
> They crawl like flies."

presents its picture to the ear as well as to the eye. And in the last phrases of the passage, describing how the laborers swarm to and fro, the verse murmurs along like a hive of bees.

Another element of strength is the fact that its language is the free forthright utterance of simple English, the very note and character of our best literature. For example: —

> "O terrible to live but in remembering
> To call her name down the long corridors;
> To come on jewels that she wore, laid by;
> Or open suddenly some chest and see
> Some favorite robe she wore on such a day!
> I dare not bring upon myself such woe."

Not a single word out of place in the sense in order to be in place in the verse!

Its word-associations are rich with the elemental feeling and emotion which is inseparably connected with our best poetry. Take for instance: —

> "Here I disband my legions. Arise,
> And spill the wine of glory on the ground;
> I turn my face into the night,"

with its train of attendant ideas. The words are "cousins to the things," and the clear inevitable associations give Herod's act of renunciation a poignant interest which one cannot easily shake oneself free of.

These are some of Mr. Phillips's best verses; but such instances of poetic fitness are abundant in "Herod."

There are weaknesses in the poem, unrhythmical verses, bad end pauses, ill-fitting rhythm, Elizabethan phraseology, echoes of lines to be found in Browning and Wordsworth, palpable imitations of Milton; but despite them all, "Herod" remains the most significant piece of English verse-writing that has appeared in recent years. If we examine the early poetry of Browning or Tennyson, we shall not find more of promise than lies here.

If we were to pass judgment on the poem as a whole, and independent of the action of the play, we should unhesitatingly say that it is the best work of its kind since the death of Browning. It shows a classic evenness in most places that is refreshing after the turgid rhythms of recent poetry — a going back to the permanent models of English verse. Let Mr. Phillips study such poetry more and more, getting fluency from Shakspere, strength and majesty from Milton (but not from Mr. Bridges' monograph on Milton's verse), naturalness from Wordsworth, ease from Tenny-

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son, variety from Browning. And let him keep his poetry a little longer in his desk — not Horace's nine years, but a modest twelvemonth, say. Let him pay no attention to flattery, social, literary, or dramatic. Let him avoid writing for the magazines, even at a sovereign the line. Let him make his living by acting: Shakspere did, and in Shakspere's day the stage presented by no means such an honorable career as it offers to-day; or let him make his living any way, honorable or dishonorable, so it is not by writing "occasional" poetry. If he does this and goes on as he has begun, we may yet in this generation add another name to the glorious roster of English poets. (John Lane. $1.50.)

APPRAISALS OF NEW BOOKS

Puritan and Anglican.

Professor Edward Dowden, with this volume of "Studies in Literature," adds new laurels to those which his earlier critical writings have yielded him. His subject is the seventeenth century; the century in which English life was split in twain, and English ideals, political, social, moral, religious, were drawn off into hostile camps; the century of the Civil War, the Commonwealth, and the Restoration. Except for the opening and closing chapters, of which the first bridges the transition from the Elizabethan period, and the second points down the broad highway of the eighteenth century, the book is composed of studies of a few individual writers, from Hooker to Butler. Personal interest, not literary eminence, is Professor Dowden's avowed principle of selection; his nine names include Vaughan and Baxter, but not Donne, or Herrick, or Dryden, but this is far from being a volume of detached studies. Each subject illustrates from a new angle the main theme, expressed in the well-chosen title; it is the progress of thought, the higher life of the people of England, which forms the sustaining interest.

The thoughtfulness, suggestiveness, and fine discrimination of this addition to critical literature will give the volume a warm welcome from special students; but it is not necessary to have delved deeply in the works of seventeenth century divines to enjoy it and profit by it. (Holt. $1.75.)

The Sacred Fount.

Mr. Henry James has written another of what, with all deference to his admirers, we must call his books about nothing. The supporting fiction upon which he hangs the successive folds of his fine-spun, transparent gossamer is the absorbed hunting of a psychological theory by three of the guests at an English house-party. Three hundred pages devoted to thirty-six hours during which nothing whatever happens, reminds one of "Clarissa Harlowe." The reminder is not favorable to Mr. James. Richardson was a sentimental psychologist, and his scale was microscopic, but his interest was in human life. "The Sacred Fount" belongs to the experimental laboratory. Its exclusive preoccupation is the operation of delicate mechanisms contrived to register atomic weights. Mr. James grows most enthusiastic in balancing and calculating differences between masses which are, to the ordinary sense, imponderable. This is all very well. But it needs to be said that this is at most but a by-path of literature. Literature deals with human, not scientific, interests, and it presents life as in the grip of necessity. Not so "The Sacred Fount." (Scribner's. $1.50.)

The History of Tammany Hall.

Mr. Gustavus Myers has rendered a public service by preparing this painstaking account of Tammany from its organization, within a fortnight of the establishment of the National Government, to the present time. It would be well if every voter could read this book, which scrupulously confines itself to the facts, and always states when charges were disputed and never proved. The recital of the events of recent years forms a familiar tale, but one which gains fresh interest when seen in the perspective of the whole story. Mr. Myers has, however, done much more than furnish ammunition for use in political battles in New York. He has made a contribution to the history of American politics. Ever since Aaron Burr got hold of Tammany and made it an effective political organization, its course has been corrupt. After each reformation it has run again to the public treasury as inevitably as water flows down hill. The conclusion is forced on the reader that here is not the cause but the symptom of the disease. The corruption is in the blood. Social education, not political organization, must be the road to the final overthrow of the evil for which Tammany stands. ($1.50.)

Italian Influences.

Mr. Eugene Schuyler, ex-Minister to Greece, originally wrote the greater part of this bulky volume of essays, literary and historical, in the form of letters to the New York *Nation*. They were published mainly in the years 1888 and 1889. They are very miscellaneous in

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subject, but are mainly reminiscences of other foreigners suggested to the author, during his journeyings in Italy, by the places visited. So from Rome he writes of the Italy of Hawthorne, from Florence of Mrs. Browning, and from Genoa of Dickens in Genoa. Concerning Italian art there is practically nothing, and of Italian literature hardly more, though Ravenna calls forth a historical and topographical discussion of the region, with reference to passages in Dante's poems. Two of the essays cannot by any stretch of the elastic title be brought within it; they were written as reviews of the lives of Samuel Rogers and Madame de Staël. The whole work is clear in style and scholarly in matter. (Scribner's. $2.50 net.)

The Religious Spirit in the Poets.

The Right Rev. W. Boyd Carpenter, Bishop of Ripon, has brought together under this title a series of essays on English poets from Spenser to Browning. Believing that there is a kinship between religion and poetry, which he discusses in his introductory essay, he proceeds to develop from some of the great poems of our literature the religious convictions of the writers. The book reflects a well-read and cultivated mind, but it displays no marked originality or special critical power. (Crowell. $1.50.)

The War Office, the Army, and the Empire.

H. O. Arnold-Foster, M.P., who has been for twenty years a student of English military problems, presents his criticisms of the conditions revealed by the Boer war in a little book of a hundred by no means close-pressed pages. In spite of more or less repetition, and some criticism which seems sufficiently obvious, the author scores on various points, and his book will help readers in this country who wish to know what the discussion is all about, to an understanding of what Army Reform means in England. (Cassell. $0.75.)

The Great Famine and Its Causes.

Mr. Vaughan Nash investigated last spring, as special correspondent of the Manchester (Eng.) *Guardian*, the conditions in famine-smitten India, and the Government measures of relief. His letters are now put into book form. The author writes temperately and sparingly of the horrors which surrounded him in a land where the peasants were dying by the wayside, and suppliants stretched forth their hands to the passer-by over the bodies of their children, where famine spread over a territory inhabited by ninety millions of people, and cholera and smallpox were sweeping the villages, famine camps, and relief works. His purpose is not to rack the emotions by picturing the distress, but to inform the public of the efficacy of the Government machine for fighting the famine, and the extent to which economic and industrial conditions which might be altered have aggravated the necessary consequence of crop failures. The effect of the imposition of English legal conceptions and methods of taxation upon the Indian population certainly seems to be disintegrating the village life and undoing the ryot by permitting him to alienate his land to the money-lender. It is significant, as the author says, that even in this worst of famine years India on the whole exported grain. (Longmans. $2.00.)

Abyssinia.

Herbert Vivian is the author of an interesting book of travel in Somaliland and Abyssinia. He made a caravan expedition to the capital of King Menelek, and accomplished it so easily that he recommends African travelling for ladies as well as men, and pronounces it almost as safe and comfortable as cycling in England. His agreeably written narrative conveys a good deal of information about Abyssinian politics, customs, and civilization. The book makes no pretence to scientific character. It is abundantly illustrated, and is provided with an outline map. (Longmans. $4.00.)

Babs, the Impossible.

Sarah Grand's new novel, with the irrepressible, hoydenish, actually impossible Babs for its heroine, and its ambitious attempt at satire of English country life, is undoubtedly the best work the writer of "The Heavenly Twins" has done. But it is not a very frank or sincere book; it is not engrossingly interesting, and its unnaturally natural people — for the effort towards clever genuineness is very palpable — are all as impossible as the heroine, and greatly less pleasing. Mechanically the book seems thrown together, one illustration which is wrongly placed and captioned being the most glaring error. (Harper. $1.50.)

The Private Life of King Edward VII.

A Member of the Royal Household is the author of this volume of occasionally mildly diverting gossip regarding the past doings, residences, and appurtenances of the new King. It is not necessary to assume that one of the former Prince's close friends wrote this book; it is made up largely of trivialities or generalities. There is, however, no hint or suspicion of scandal. The author's admiration for his (or her) august Prince shines from every page. He is a model of decorum, a prince of good fellows, a royal yachtsman and helmsman, and "the best shot in the kingdom."

The account of his country house and the life of himself and his family there is interesting. The furniture both of Sandringham and Marlborough House is described in great detail, and 'The Prince and his clothes,' and 'What the Prince eats and drinks' receive separate chapters. A number of

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anecdotes are scattered through the volume; most of them need the glamour of majesty to give them lustre. A number of pleasant illustrations from photographs add to the book. (Appleton. $1.50.)

The Jew in London.

Mr. C. B. Russell and Mr. H. S. Lewis, graduates respectively of Oxford and Cambridge, were commissioned by the Council of Toynbee Hall to investigate the economic and social problems raised by the great colony of Jews in London. The immigration in the early eighties of a flood of wretched Russian and Polish Jews, driven before the fierce storm of anti-Semitism, raised the question whether this movement ought not to be checked by governmental action. Since then the competition of Jewish with English workmen and tradesmen and the conditions of life in the Ghetto have called forth more or less agitation against the race. Mr. Russell considers the subject under the heads of the social, the industrial, and the religious questions, and Mr. Lewis, himself a Jew, adds a supplementary discussion of Mr. Russell's presentation. A preface is contributed by Mr. Bryce. A carefully prepared map shows by streets the relative proportions of Jews and Gentiles in East London. The book is a valuable sociological study. (Crowell. $1.50.)

The Way of the World, and Other Ways.

Katherine E. Conway attempts a photographic reproduction of the social jealousies, distinctions, and habits of thought, with, of course, a love-story interwoven, of some hypothetical town, apparently in New England, or near it; though where to find such a town with its "best society" Roman Catholic is a "poser." The women mainly fill the stage; the masculine element enters only when it is necessary to enable the feminine to get along, and act as the exigencies of the situation require, without concern for probability. A loyal lover forsakes his fiancée, without an explanation, on the strength of a piece of malicious gossip, and comes back only when she is dying of a broken heart, to bring her to life after the doctors have given her up. (The Pilot Publishing Co.)

Abraham Lincoln—His Book.

Abraham Lincoln during the campaign against Douglas in 1858 for the United States Senate prepared a little pocket note-book for the use of his friend, Captain Brown, who had to defend him on the stump against the charge of advocating "negro equality." Into this he pasted newspaper clippings from several speeches, adding comments in his own handwriting. This is the only book which Lincoln ever wrote or compiled. It is now reproduced in facsimile. The imitation of the original worn notebook is perfect; the little volume is an interesting Lincoln memorial. (McClure, Phillips. $1.00 net.)

American History told by Contemporaries. Volume III.

Professor Albert Bushnell Hart, of Harvard, in this latest volume of his valuable work covers the period from 1783 to 1845, to which he gives the name of "National Expansion." The term 'source-book' may seem to suggest something too scholarly and remote from human interest for the general reader; but with much of this work the case is quite the opposite. The selections have been chosen for the express purpose of making the life and thought of the times real and vivid; and any one who possesses a knowledge of the outlines of American history will find here entertaining and suggestive reading, which may be extended indefinitely by following out the supplementary references. (Macmillan. $2.00.)

Questions of Empire.

Lord Rosebery's Rectorial address delivered at the University of Glasgow last fall is of great interest as the eloquent presentation of a statesman's thought on the situation in which Great Britain finds herself at the beginning of the twentieth century.

Recognizing that leadership, political and industrial, will go to the fittest in the fierce international competition that is ahead, he asks how England is preparing for that struggle, physically, intellectually, and morally. (Crowell. 35 cents.)

Abraham Lincoln.

Mr. Joseph H. Choate's address before the Edinburgh Philosophical Institution last November comes to us now in print in the 'What Is Worth While' Series. Many readers will be glad of the chance to own this admirable little sketch by our Ambassador to England of the life of the man whom he calls "the most American of all Americans." (Crowell. 35 cents.)

An American with Lord Roberts

Mr. Julian Ralph sums up in this book the portions of a correspondent's experiences that are not included in "Towards Pretoria." There is no better view of Field-Marshal Lord Roberts and his associate generals anywhere in all the mass of South African war literature and journalism which has been published during the last year. Mr. Ralph's book is a genuine, vivid, and personal account. (Stokes. $1.50.)

The Teaching of Latin and Greek in the Secondary School.

Professors Charles E. Bennett and George P. Bristol, of Cornell, write this careful examination of the whole question of the place and work of classical studies in American schools. This is the first volume in a projected American Teachers' Series under the general editorship of Professor James E. Russell, Dean of Teachers College, Columbia University, and is worth a wide reading by teachers of language, ancient and modern, both in our schools and our colleges. The judgments on educational problems are the outcome of broad experience, are

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well reasoned, and cannot fail to prove profitable even to those who find themselves obliged in some cases to dissent from the conclusions of the authors. (Longmans. $1.50.)

Virgin Saints and Martyrs.

Mr. S. Baring-Gould supplements his earlier "Lives of the Saints" with this series of brief biographies of a score of women, all but one of whom have found their place in the hagiology of the Roman Catholic church. The single exception is "Sister Dora," a sister of Mark Pattison, who seems in somewhat strange company with this collection of early Christian and mediæval saints, of whom the next latest was Santa Teresa, and most of whom belong not later than the seventh century. Mr. Baring-Gould has, however, sifted his historical material and attempted to get back of myth and legend to the truth of fact. He makes no secret of admiring practical rather than mystic piety—a trait which gives a somewhat unusual quality to these biographies. (Crowell. $1.50.)

Milly.

This early novel of the late Mr. Maurice Thompson is being republished to catch the after-effects of the popularity of "Alice of Old Vincennes." It is a pity, too, for the book is evidently a product of the writer's literary immaturity, melodramatic, badly put together, though here and there showing a touch which might forecast the temporarily widely read "Alice." (New Amsterdam Book Co. $1.50.)

Mrs. Clyde.

Julien Gordon gives us in this "story of a social career" a novel which, if it possesses no claims to very high distinction, is at least neither dull nor vulgar, nor badly written, nor clumsily contrived. Mrs. Clyde is an ambitious woman who, having married a wealthy but socially impossible suitor of twice her years, lays patient siege to the citadel of social exclusiveness, and, by slow approaches and good generalship, finally conquers it. The method of the book is too episodic; there is no plot, but only Mrs. Clyde, to carry it forward, and there is nothing remarkably interesting about her. She never wholly commands our sympathy, or wholly loses it. The book is neither a social satire nor the presentation of a moral conflict, but rather a kind of study of manners within the circle of what is called "society." (Appleton. $1.50.)

A Lady of the Regency

Mrs. Stepney Rawson has woven an intricate tale of politics and court intrigue around the much-abused but indiscreet Queen Caroline as the central figure. The scene is England between 1813 and 1820, when the bitter factions created by the family quarrels of the house of Hanover resulted in three courts—that of the old Queen, the Regent, afterwards George IV, and Caroline. The narrative is sometimes overcrowded with historical detail and minor characters, but keeps its interest up to the end. (Harpers. $1.50.)

Lords of the North.

A. C. Laut chose a promising subject for a story of adventure when he took up the rivalries of the Hudson's Bay and Northwest Companies in their struggle for the fur-trade and mastery of Upper Canada. Unfortunately he does not rise to his opportunity. The earlier part is not so bad, but when it comes to life on the plains and among the Indians the book fails miserably. (J. F. Taylor & Co. $1.50.)

The Life and Literature of the Ancient Hebrews.

The Rev. Lyman Abbott has done a great service to the Christian Church in publishing this fearless yet reverential volume on the Old Testament. One of the great duties which rest on the clergy to-day is to give the Bible back to the people by interpreting it in terms of modern thought. This is what Dr. Abbott has done. The result shows that the Higher Criticism has given us a greater Bible than was known before. Scientific method has proved the discoverer of religious truth. If the greatest book of all literature is to be opened to educated people of this and the next generation, it must be by the dissemination of such knowledge as Dr. Abbott here sets forth. Broad, enlightened, spiritual, and written with a high quality of style, this is a book to be read with intense interest. (Houghton, Mifflin. $2.00.)

Quincy Adams Sawyer.

A good example of what clever advertising can do for a really mediocre book is this fast-selling novel of Charles Pidgin's. Conventional in construction, sophomoric in its English, foolish where it means to be amusing, amusing where it means to be serious, this book cannot critically be considered even in the class of stories like "David Harum" and "Eben Holden." The author's second book is advertised in the story in a most astonishing way, and "the sense of the eternal fitness of things" is often jarred throughout the volume. But quaint New England dialect and humor are always attractive; and those who like to see heroes made governors and heroines great novelists, all the wicked overthrown and the good superfluously happy, will enjoy the book. Moreover, Mason's Corners is something of a real place and its people occasionally real people,—and the publishers are blessed with the best poster of the year. (C. M. Clark. $1.50.)

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THE MONTH'S MOST POPULAR BOOKS

REPORTS from librarians in Hartford, Springfield, Detroit, San Francisco, Los Angeles, Minneapolis, Atlanta, Chicago, Cleveland, New York, Brooklyn, Jersey City, and Cincinnati, and from book-dealers in Pittsburg, St. Paul, Boston, Philadelphia, New York, San Francisco, Cleveland, Detroit, St. Louis, Louisville, and Indianapolis, have been made into the following composite lists, showing the books which are most widely popular: —

BOOK-DEALERS' REPORTS

1. Alice of Old Vincennes — Thompson. (Bowen-Merrill.)
2. Eben Holden — Bacheller. (Lothrop.)
3. The Life and Death of Richard Yea-and-Nay — Hewlett. (Macmillan.)
4. Eleanor — Ward. (Harper.)
5. Stringtown on the Pike — Lloyd. (Dodd, Mead.)
6. An Englishwoman's Love Letters — Anon. (Doubleday, Page.)
7. In the Palace of the King — Crawford. (Macmillan.)
8. Monsieur Beaucaire — Tarkington. (McClure, Phillips.)
9. Rostand's L'Aiglon — Parker. (Russell.)
10. Uncle Terry — Munn. (Lee, Shepard.)
11. The Cardinal's Snuff Box — Harland. (Lane.)
12. Napoleon, the Last Phase — Rosebery. (Harper.)
13. The Mantle of Elijah — Zangwill. (Harper.)
14. Quincy Adams Sawyer — Pidgin. (Clark.)
15. The Master Christian — Corelli. (Dodd, Mead.)
16. Elizabeth and her German Garden — Anon. (Macmillan.)
17. The Voice of the People — Glasgow. (Doubleday, Page.)
18. More Fables in Slang — Ade. (Stone.)
19. The Lane that Had No Turning — Parker. (Doubleday, Page.)
20. The Redemption of David Corson — Goss. (Bowen-Merrill.)
21. The Life of Phillips Brooks — Allen. (Dutton.)
22. Tommy and Grizel — Barrie. (Scribner.)
23. That Mainwaring Affair — Barbour. (Lippincott.)
24. Mrs. Clyde — Gordon. (Appleton.)
25. Life and Letters of Thomas Henry Huxley — Huxley. (Appleton.)
26. The Stickit Minister's Wooing — Crockett. (Doubleday, Page.)
27. L'Aiglon, par Rostand. (Brentano.)
28. The Reign of Law — Allen. (Macmillan.)
29. Love Lyrics — Riley. (Bowen-Merrill.)
30. The Conscience of Coralie — Moore. (Stone.)

LIBRARIANS' REPORTS

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9. The Reign of Law — Allen. (Macmillan.)
10. The Life and Death of Richard Yea-and-Nay — Hewlett. (Macmillan.)
11. Elizabeth and her German Garden — Anon. (Macmillan.)
12. Napoleon, the Last Phase — Rosebery. (Harper.)
13. When Knighthood Was in Flower — Major. (Bowen-Merrill.)
14. To Have and to Hold — Johnston. (Houghton, Mifflin.)
15. The Gentleman from Indiana — Tarkington. (Doubleday, Page.)
16. Unleavened Bread — Grant. (Scribner.)
17. Wanted, a Matchmaker — Ford. (Dodd, Mead.)
18. The Riddle of the Universe — Haeckel. (Harper.)
19. Life and Letters of Thomas Henry Huxley — Huxley. (Appleton.)
20. The Redemption of David Corson — Goss. (Bowen-Merrill.)
21. The Life of Phillips Brooks — Allen. (Dutton.)
22. Tommy and Grizel — Barrie. (Scribner.)
23. David Harum — Westcott. (Appleton.)
24. The Hosts of the Lord — Steel. (Macmillan.)
25. The Sky Pilot — Connor. (Revell.)
26. Richard Carvel — Churchill. (Macmillan.)
27. Bob, Son of Battle — Ollivant. (Doubleday, Page.)
28. Black Rock — Connor. (Revell.)
29. Oliver Cromwell — Roosevelt. (Scribner.)
30. Janice Meredith — Ford. (Dodd, Mead.)

Sixteen books are mentioned in both lists. Eight, "Eben Holden," "Alice of Old Vincennes," "The Life and Death of Richard Yea-and-Nay," "Eleanor," "Stringtown on the Pike," "In the Palace of the King," "L'Aiglon," and "The Cardinal's Snuff Box," are among the first twelve of each list, and are probably the most widely read books of the month. "Master Christian" was among the similarly judged most popular books last month, but has dropped in the dealers' reports. "Richard Yea-and-Nay," "Stringtown on the Pike," and "L'Aiglon" are in this selected list for the first time. "Alice of Old Vincennes" has replaced "Eben Holden" at the head of the composite dealers' list, though remaining second to it in the librarians' reports. There are nine books not fiction in the dealers' list, and seven in the librarians' list.

"In the Palace of the King," "Monsieur Beaucaire," "The Cardinal's Snuff Box," and "The Mantle of Elijah" have lowered slightly in the dealers' list, while "An Englishwoman's Love Letters," besides "Richard Yea-and-Nay," "Stringtown on the Pike," and "L'Aiglon," have risen rapidly. "Uncle Terry" and "Quincy Adams Sawyer" are newcomers which are well reported. In the librarians' list there is less change, but "Stringtown on the Pike," "L'Aiglon," and "Richard Yea-and-Nay," all show a considerable advance in favor.

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An English Engineer on American Machinery

THE reports of an English engineer — sent to this country by the London *Times* to observe what mechanical progress the United States had made — have just been issued in book form (Harpers).

The state of affairs that he found was sufficient to make him eloquently warn his countrymen of the approach of American iron and steel supremacy, which has now been achieved.

As a picture of American mechanical achievement the book is exceedingly instructive. The writer shows how it is that the Americans have been able to get the advantage of England.

The enterprise which has caused this result is shown by the very methods of making pig iron. Holding that a furnace is good for so much production to each relining, American iron-masters, as a matter of economy, will drive a 25,000 cubic-foot plant to a weekly output of 4200 tons, while the English furnaces, having 36,000 cubic feet capacity, produce only 950 tons weekly, but need relining only once every eighteen years.

The superiority of American transportation and communication over British struck this observer as no slight factor in the progress of this country. Enterprise in securing cheap transportation is no less wonderful than the transportation itself. An instance was found in the great lock at Sault Ste. Marie, which is 900 feet long by 60 wide. American enterprise stops not at dredging a creek as big as an English river, until it is large enough to float the largest ore transports that ply the Great Lakes. This task included making an artificial basin for the transports to turn in, which was scooped out of solid earth.

In the shops, too, the great problems of internal transit are solved without manual labor. The most marvellous device in this category that he saw, was the Brown Conveyor, — a massive travelling bridge 400 feet wide by 60 feet high, bearing a moving bucket of 15 cwt. capacity, which is used in groups of eight or ten, to house the 10,000,000-ton winter stock of the Federal Steel Company at Lorain, Ohio, upon which the works depend when the lakes are frozen and traffic stopped.

Everywhere brains are thus used to save labor. Ore goes from mine to blast furnace, is run into pigs, cooled, and piled on cars ready for shipment, without the touch of a human hand; no labor, save that of the attendant who starts the mechanism, is needed to charge the great open hearth furnaces; to cast the ingots; to push them from their moulds, and to place them in the "soaking" pits, and to carry them thence to the great hydraulic shears, which cut them into "blooms" for the rolling mills.

At the works of Lauglin & Jones at Pittsburg, by no means the largest of American plants, the ability of our manufacturers to utilize the raw product of the furnaces is well exemplified. Rolls of bewildering form are there produced. Among them is cold-rolled shafting up to 50 feet length and a 5-inch diameter not varying a thousandth of an inch from specification.

Nor does the American excel alone in producing. He makes a market for the wares that the factory turns out. Skilled mechanical engineers are employed to exploit the machines and to show their workings. When the Carnegie Company was told some years ago that steel could not be advantageously used in the construction of buildings, it at once set experts to prove the contrary, and succeeded.

Orders once taken are executed with all possible rapidity. The repairing of a wrecked bridge girder in twelve hours by the Berlin (Connecticut) Bridge Company, the filling of an order for nine locomotives in fourteen days at the Baldwin Locomotive Works, may be cited as a few notable achievements of this kind.

In the matter of stationary engines, the United States has made rapid strides of late. Our exports, while still less than Great Britain's, have increased 200% in the last ten years. Contracts such as that for eight pair of compound 8000-horse-power engines taken by the E. P. Allis Company of Milwaukee have become not uncommon. This firm has already filled orders in Australia, Tasmania, Austria, Canada, England, Ireland, Scotland, Germany, Mexico, New Zealand, the Sandwich Islands, South Africa, Argentina, Chile, and Spain, and in the 50 states and territories of the Union. To the Carnegie Company

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alone 31 blowing engines, 8 rolling-mill engines, and 1 air-compressing engine have been sold.

The magnitude of the machine tool industry can best be realized by citing a few machines which are now on the market. Among these may be mentioned a fly-wheel lathe that would take work up to 40 feet diameter and 11 feet between diameters, and a planing machine in the Lane & Bodley Works at Cincinnati, which was itself 112 feet long, and would handle work 16 feet by 16 feet in cross section and 56 feet long. The basis of the successful engineering work of both the United States and Great Britain rests in their ability to produce accurate and efficient machines of this sort.

While this industry is chiefly centred in New England, a band saw and a fixed planing machine — both condemned as impossible by British engineers — in the J. P. Fay and Egan Company in Cincinnati and a wonderful dividing engine at Warner & Swazey's works in Cleveland will represent the West.

This dividing engine is a marvel of mechanism. So delicate is its construction that an insulated room underground, kept at a constant temperature and zealously guarded against change, is required for its work. Three and a half years' steady work on it have reduced the error to less than a second of arc or something less than an inch in a circle of three miles. As the heat from the body of an attendant would distort the fine adjustments, the dividing engine is usually locked in its insulated cell and left to do its work in solitude.

The Niles Tool Works also produce something extraordinary in a horizontal boring, milling, and drilling machine, with a 10-foot bed and a circular, revolving table for heavy marine work. This firm also constructs steam bending rolls for the government, capable of mastering a plate 25 feet long and 1 inch thick. The company also makes a 90-inch locomotive lathe.

The malleable iron industry, considered too expensive to be profitable in England, is steadily increasing in America. The use of natural gas and disuse of the ancient annealing pots or boxes have enabled the Buckeye Malleable Iron Coupler Company to reduce the price of their products; and they have produced a coupler which successfully hauled a train of 50 steel cars, the weight of which aggregated 2883 tons.

The Pittsburg Malleable Iron Company have nearly 5000 different patterns — many of them for articles which British engineers have claimed could be successfully made only of wrought iron or steel.

America's labor system far surpasses that of Great Britain. In spite of the fact that the individual wage-earner receives more pay than his English brother, the labor costs less in this country. The hostility of the British trades-unions to labor-saving machines and piece work has repressed advancement and made necessary the hordes of low-priced workmen characteristic of every plant in the United Kingdom.

Many of the observations of this Englishman are revelations to the unmechanical part of our own public. His report is the most intelligent survey of American mechanical skill that has been made.

"Community of Interest" as a Business Method

THE tremendous lever which promises to go down into our financial history under the name of "community of interest" has now taken definite shape in the organization of a New Jersey corporation, with a capital stock of twenty millions, which it is said will be increased from time to time in the future. Men of masterly influence in transportation affairs are the organizers; and the new company has been formed to give subscribers to its stock an active voice in framing and regulating the operating and traffic policy of various railroads. It is not proposed to purchase a controlling interest in the securities of any one road. Instead, the company will seek to acquire an interest in the securities of railroads whose ownership is much scattered. Its first purchases will be confined to lines in the West, and thus bring a conserving influence to bear upon their policies as these affect other lines and competitive conditions.

The method of operation will be simple and elastic, the company issuing participating certificates against the stocks purchased by it. The first purchase made was ten millions dollars' worth of Illinois Central shares, and the company has issued an equal amount of its own bonds, bearing three and a half per cent due in fifty years, and secured by this stock. The idea of acquiring railroad securities and issuing participating securities in their place has been successfully carried into operation in Great Britain and Holland, but is a novelty in this country, where the business of issuing bonds against securities has in the past been confined to the operations of mortgage companies. Its introduction in the United States places a most effective instrument in the hands of the men who have made "community of interest" a household phrase, and from whose use of it may come results of national scope and consequence. Indeed, this is what is predicted for it by men most familiar with the strength and the tendency of the forces now dominant in railway management.

Colossal Banking Consolidations

A NOTEWORTHY phase of recent colossal financial activities is that five New York banks report total resources of a little over five hundred and fifty millions. In other words, one-half

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of the resources of the sixty odd banks in the New York Clearing House are held by these five institutions, while three of the five, which are so closely allied that they are popularly regarded as elements of the same group, have total resources of four hundred millions. One of these is the National City Bank, whose growth and stupendous strength furnish striking proof of rapid concentration of great monetary resources into a few hands. When the new federal custom house is completed the National City Bank will move into the old custom house, for which it will pay what amounts to a rent of $300,000 a year. The securing of this building is said to have been prompted by a sentiment upon which a vast ambition may be built. The old custom house is in appearance not unlike the Bank of England.

The deposits as well as the loans and the discounts of the National City Bank already exceed those of the Bank of France, with ramifications in every corner of that country. Scarcely a day passes that its managers do not have submitted to them some sort of foreign proposition for borrowing money.

Insurance Companies as Great Financial Reservoirs

GREAT, however, as are the resources of the National City and its banking allies, they fall far below those of the three most considerable life insurance companies in New York. With three and a half billions of insurance in force, they report assets in round numbers of nine hundred millions, with cash amounting to nearly fifty millions, and an annual income three times as large.

One of these companies yearly furnishes to its policy holders a detailed statement of its assets, which tells most impressively how varied and far-reaching is its influence as a money lender. The foreign governments which are numbered among its creditors for sums often mounting into the millions, include Russia, Austria-Hungary, Servia, Bulgaria, Germany, Prussia, Wurtemberg, Sweden, Switzerland, Great Britain, Cuba, Mexico, Brazil, and the Argentine Republic. Its holdings of state, city, county, and other domestic bonds exceed a hundred millions, and while it owns outright seventeen million dollars' worth of real estate, situated in nearly every corner of the globe, it holds mortgages on property for more than double that amount.

Doubtless, the other two great companies could make a similar showing of earth-girdling loans, for one of them recently took an entire issue of ten millions of Russian government railroad bonds, and the other subscribed for a like amount of British Exchequer bonds. Most important recent "deals" have been consummated without invoking the assistance of foreign bankers, and it is mainly the multiplying resources of the great life insurance companies that has made this possible.

Bankers for our Colonial Work

THE North American Trust Company, which had absorbed the Trust Company of New York and the International Banking and Trust Company, and had secured control of a majority of the stock of two national banks in New York, has secured control also of the Bank of Havana, with branch institutions in the chief cities of Cuba.

It is the purpose of the great corporation born of these absorptions and purchases, and with resources aggregating perhaps fifty millions, not only to be the dominating financial influence in Cuba, but to play a like part in the development and monetary affairs of Porto Rico, Hawaii, and the Philippines. Besides affording adequate banking facilities to these islands, it will, when conditions are ripe, undertake the underwriting of municipal loans, and the furnishing of capital to men of character and credit, who may desire to develop the resources of the islands. The new combination, although two national banks constitute a part of its machinery, will not be hampered by any of the restrictions that are placed upon such institutions by the national banking law. This financial organization is the result of long and carefully laid plans.

A Pacific Railroad through Mexico

MANY trained observers believe that the Pacific will at some time replace the Atlantic as the world's chief commercial ocean. One fact looking towards such a change, afar off, is the recent subscription by New York men of funds for constructing a railroad from Chihuahua, Mexico, to one of the Mexican Pacific ports. Chihuahua is already connected by rail with El Paso, Texas, and the new road will be in effect a continuation of the Southern Pacific, or perhaps of the Atchison, or both of them, — in fact, of all the railways that concentrate at El Paso. It will reach deep water on the Pacific a thousand miles nearer El Paso than some of the ports upon the coast of California. It will thus provide the shortest railway route from the Southern States to the Pacific coast, while the connecting steamship lines to Hawaii and the Far East, which are sure to be added in due time, will help to make it the quickest way of reaching the most important markets of the future for the surplus product of the Southern cotton mills.

The Chihuahua and Pacific Railway, as it is to be called, is also expected quickly to develop a considerable local traffic, for expert examination of many parts of the state of Chihuahua, through which it will run, has revealed as rich and varied

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mineral deposits as any area of like size on the continent. These enterprises will be developed with American capital, and will quicken the forces which are fast making Mexico, so far as the exploitation of its resources is concerned, a *protégé* of the United States.

Where the Small Manufacturer Wins

So much is said about the crushing out of the small merchant and manufacturer by the great trusts and combinations that a conspicuous and rather extraordinary exception is worth noting. Great manufacturers of cloaks have literally been driven out of business by the small manufacturer, and the end is not yet. A majority of the large operators in New York have failed, reduced their capital, or voluntarily retired from the manufacturing business, after having made little or no profit during the last few years. Their undoing dates from the time when some of the New York East Side foremen started small shops of their own and submitted to the larger manufacturers a few samples, from which they received orders. The newcomers had no selling expense, and small outlay of any sort, beyond the actual cost of the labor and materials which went into the garments. The manufacturers bought their product and sold it as their own at a substantial increase of price.

Soon, however, the East Side men began to submit their goods directly to the large retailers, and, their prices being much less than the retailers had been paying for the same goods, they found a prompt and growing market. This dealt a heavy blow to the staple business of the large manufacturers. A little later came the organization of a few makers to do a small business, limiting themselves to high-grade tailor-made goods, a move which quickly wrought havoc with the higher-priced business of the big manufacturers. Meantime, a few East Side tailors had taken up the manufacture of medium-priced goods under East Side conditions, and this has been continued by other men, who have established the East Side conditions in other parts of New York. They have taken the cheaper lofts, and make very small sample lines. Thus the general houses have been slowly, but surely, driven out of business. For six years the trend has been toward constantly increasing subdivision, and that the business bids fair to be divided no more is due to the fact that subdivision can go no further.

Those familiar with the subject declare that there is a decided advantage in the smaller shop, well under the individual direction of its proprietor, the cost of organizing and superintending larger places more than offsetting the profits derived from greater operations. And this advantage of personal supervision has not only told against the large operator, but has also practically abolished the sweatshop.

The Damming of the Nile

THE completion of the dam across the Nile, near Assouan, begins the transformation of Lower Egypt, and will introduce a new and important force in world commerce. How to make the waters of the Nile, a capricious and uncertain stream, regularly irrigate and fertilize the great valley has been a problem of the centuries. A few years ago, engineers who had carefully studied the subject suggested to the Egyptian government that this result could be secured by constructing a series of dams, which should serve as storage reservoirs. A dam was built in the Delta country, south of Cairo. It was successful, and the region of the Delta was supplied with regular and abundant irrigation. Without delay a second dam was begun at Assouan, seven hundred miles up the Nile valley, and, with this completed, work will shortly begin at a point some three hundred miles farther south on a third.

These three dams will furnish storage sufficient to irrigate the entire Nile valley, notwithstanding all variations of climate, and will bring one of the richest reaches of land on the globe into steady agricultural use. How important this advantage will be is shown by the cotton crop. Egypt now produces one-tenth of the world's supply. Permanent irrigation and modern methods and implements are expected to increase this output many times over, and to supply British manufacturers at prices far below those they have heretofore paid for American cotton. The effect on our cotton-growing and manufacture will be direct and important.

Cotton is not the only product which is expected to be enormously increased by the permanent and regular irrigation of the valley of the Nile. It is peculiarly adapted to sugar-cane, and under the new conditions heavy investments of English capital in sugar-growing and in refineries in Egypt are expected to be made.

The damming of the Nile, an industrial undertaking almost equal in importance to the building of the trans-Siberian railway, or the proposed construction of the Nicaragua Canal, has also furnished a brilliant achievement in financing, and one that can be studied with profit on this side of the ocean. The Egyptian government pays to the contractors $1,400,000 a year for a period of twenty years. Meantime, it taxes the lands benefited by irrigation, and this tax will pay the interest on the bonds and provide a sinking fund for their redemption, besides furnishing a considerable revenue to the government. The greater part of these bonds are held in England, and so must be counted among the forces

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which are making Egypt an English colony in fact if not in name.

To Study American Agricultural Machinery

ONE of the serious economic problems that Germany has in hand is to overcome the neglect of the farms by the population that has been flocking into the towns. German agricultural methods are yet much more backward than her manufacturing methods. The government is sending a special agent to the United States to study American agricultural machinery with a view to its use at home. He will have the duty of observing one of the most noteworthy revolutions that has ever taken place in any industry — and one of the greatest social changes ever wrought by machinery.

To Maintain the Book Market

EVERYBODY who receives a discount at a bookseller's (as everybody does) or who buys books at a department store knows that the price at which practically all novels and many of other kinds of books are sold is less than the published retail price. A novel of which the retail price set by the publisher is $1.50 is sold for $1.25, or $1.15, or $1.10 — sometimes even as low as 94 cents. In other words, the retail bookseller or keeper of a department store gives the buyer a share of his profit — sometimes nearly all his profit. So universal has this custom become with reference to very popular books, that a new popular book has no fixed price; and the retail book trade has become demoralized.

The publisher does not lose; he receives his wholesale price. The author does not lose — he receives his royalty. The loss falls on the retail bookseller, who does not make a sufficient profit on his wares.

The American Publishers' Association, composed of practically all the publishers of copyright books, will forthwith put a plan into effect (May 1) to try to prevent price-cutting, especially on books other than fiction. The publishers have agreed to make all such books "net" books; that is, books other than novels, which are distributed through the regular channels of the book-trade, will be published at a somewhat lower price, and they will be sold only to dealers who agree to sell them at the full retail price.

This action is an effort by the publishers to build up the retail book-dealer to his former level of profit and dignity — or rather to enable the book-dealer so to build himself up. The retail book-trade is, of course, greater than it ever was before, and there ought to be more money made by retail booksellers than ever before. The holding-up of the retail price is meant to bring about this desirable result.

The price paid for books by the "consumer" will be very little more than is now paid; and the reading public, in the smaller cities in particular, ought to get the additional advantage of having bookstores that will carry larger stocks of books and a greater variety than is now their habit.

From every point of view the move is a good one. A demoralized trade serves nobody to the best advantage, least of all, the public, in the long run.

In the agreement that the publishers have made, novels are yet exempt; but some of them are already making experiments in publishing novels as "net" books, and in frankly requesting retailer and purchaser to maintain the price.

The Results of Railroad Consolidation

Nearly 80,000 miles of railroad in the United States, as a result of the recent as well as previous consolidations, have come under the ownership or control of five financial powers. The five groups so formed are remarkably uniform in size.

The subjoined table will give the groups, their component parts, and the individual and collective mileage.

I. VANDERBILT GROUP	
ROAD	MILEAGE
New York Central	2,828
Lake Shore and Michigan Southern	1,413
New York, Chicago, and St. Louis	523
Michigan Central	1,200
Canada Southern	457
Lake Erie & Western	725
C., C., C. & St. Louis System	2,287
Dela., Lackawanna & Western	900
Chicago and Northwestern	5,562
Ch., St. Paul, Minn., and Omaha	1,532
	17,427

II. PENNSYLVANIA GROUP	
ROAD	MILEAGE
Pennsylvania System	9,237
Buffalo, Rochester & Pittsburg	650
Western New York and Pennsylvania	633
Chesapeake & Ohio	1,476
Norfolk and Western	1,552
Baltimore and Ohio System	3,166
Long Island	668
	17,372

III. GOULD GROUP	
ROAD	MILEAGE
Missouri Pacific	5,324
Texas and Pacific	1,413
St. Louis Southwestern	1,258
International and Gt. Northern	825
Denver & Rio Grande	1,674
Missouri, Kansas & Texas	2,361
Wabash	2,360
	15,215

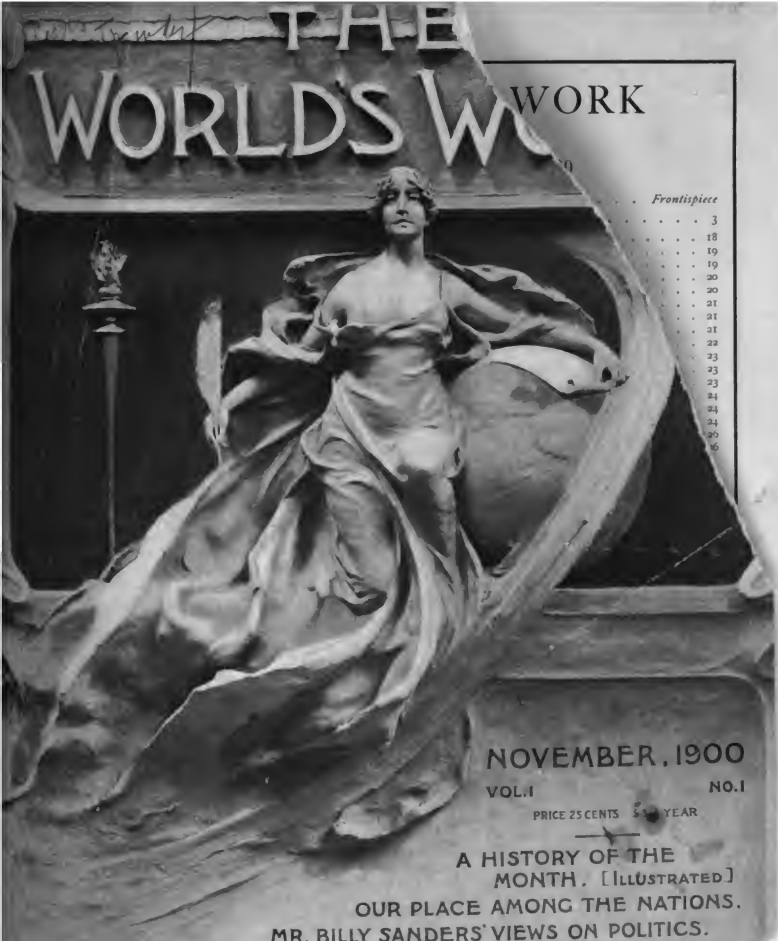
IV. KUHN-LOEB-HARRIMAN GROUP	
ROAD	MILEAGE
Union Pacific	7,491
Oregon R.R. & Navigation	1,059
Oregon Short Line	1,438
Chicago and Alton	843
Southern Pacific	7,417
Kansas City Southern	887
Chicago Terminal Transfer	93
	14,158

V. MORGAN GROUP	
ROAD	MILEAGE
Reading	2,891
Lehigh Valley	1,404
Erie	2,271
Central of New Jersey	677
Chicago, Indiana & Louisville	508
Southern Railway	5,377
Mobile and Ohio	687
	15,715

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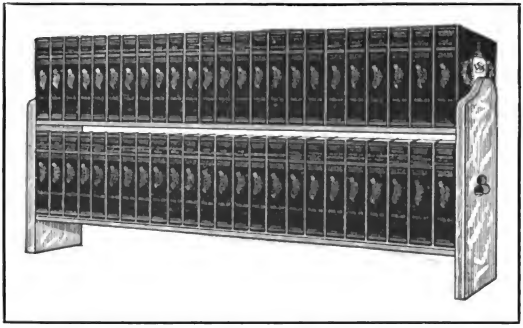
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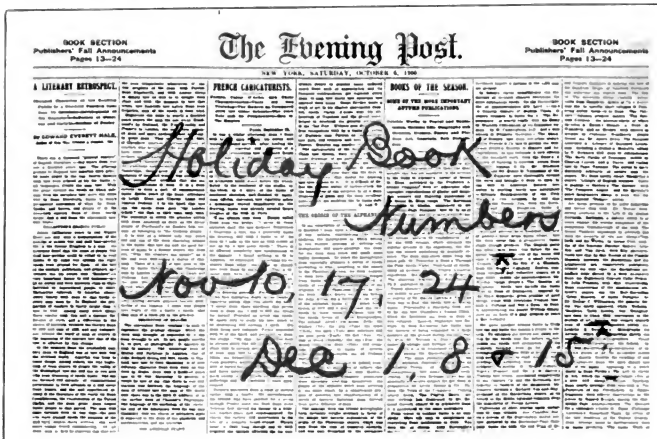
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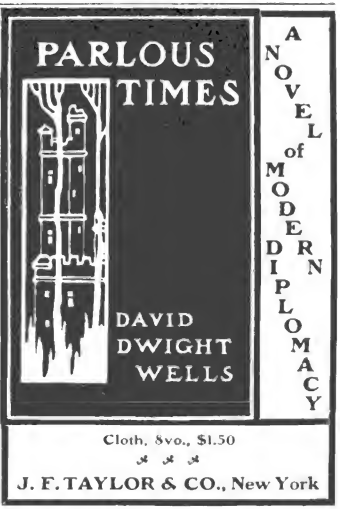
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from this noon-time century, of civilization's far-off dawn. And that is a glimpse which it is in every way worth while for an American to have. It lifts him quite out of the rush and strife of his modern environment by placing him in contact with old places and ancient times. If one is from San Francisco, the sight of the Golden Horn, which has harbored the sails of Byzantium, somehow gives to his fondness for his own Golden Gate a deep feeling of the oldness of the sea; and to the New Yorker who sails over the waters that bore the commerce of Carthage seven days. It will begin on January 31, 1901, with the sailing of the *Auguste Victoria* of the Hamburg-American line, from New York, and will end April 8, the date of reaching New York on the return. Many of the places visited on the itinerary, which covers nearly 13,000 miles, were described in an article in last month's *Harper's*. The first stop is at Funchal, the lovely capital of Madeira, and thence the vessel proceeds to Gibraltar, entering the straits off Cape Trafalgar, where Nelson met his death in the greatest sea-fight of the ages. After a stop at Gibraltar,

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No more animated or typical scenes than the market places are to be found in the Orient. It is here that the masses are to be seen and heard in all their native characteristics.

the Riviera may be visited. The *Auguste Victoria* next takes a southeasterly course to Sicily, where a stop is made at Syracuse, once the emporium of the world with a half million people, but now having a population of scarcely a score of thousands. The city is rich in memorials and traditions of the early Hellenic times. The Ear of Dionysius can still hear in a marvellous way, and some of the catacombs remain. The Greek theatre, dating from the fifth century B.C., is in a condition of crumbling glory, and there are some remnants of the Olympian Zeus, which was built in the earliest Syracusan period. These antient walls make the modern ramparts of Malta, the next place to be visited, seem all the more formidable.

which enables one to visit the fortress and to see the matchless panorama spread out from the height of El Hacho, the cruise is continued almost due east to Algiers. This interesting city of northern Africa, with its mingling of Moor, Berber, Turk, with just a touch of white here and there given by the French, makes a picturesque stopping-place for the tourist.



The tombs of the Mamelukes are one of the many picturesque places of interest to be seen at Cairo.

From Algiers the sea is crossed to picturesque Genoa and to Villefranche, from where Monte Carlo and the other famous resorts of

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From Malta the ship proceeds to Egypt, hoary and mysterious cradle of the race. In Alexandria and Cairo, the life of this strange land of the Nile unfolds in endless variety. The street scenes in particular, presenting as they do all phases of the oriental world, will afford a great fund of amusement and delight for visitors from the West. Here a juggler gathers about him a motley group; a fierce Numidian jostles a Greek from Ephesus; and the fez of the Turk nods near the turban of some desert sheik. The relics of the past are quite as interesting as these Orientals of the present. In Alexandria is Pompey's Pillar, and in Cairo are the tombs of the Mamelukes, and many mosques in all stages of preservation; and near by is Gizeh with its great pyramids, and the Sphinx, and the site of ancient Memphis, with the colossal statue of Rameses II. The time allotted to Alexandria and Cairo is sufficient to visit all the places of greatest interest.



A modern trolly line now makes it an easier although a less romantic journey out to the ancient Pyramids of Gizeh.

Leaving Egypt, the next call is at Jaffa, at the eastern end of the sea. As the ship approaches this ancient shore, the first glimpse of Palestine is of the blue hills of Judea. From Jaffa, Jerusalem is reached by rail in a few hours. The holy city at first sight appears in a sad state of decay, but the many places of sacred interest help one to reconstruct in imagination the Jerusalem of the prophets. On the summit of Mount Zion, always one of the first places to be visited, is the sanctuary of Harâm-esh-Sheriff, occupying a spot which has been consecrated to divine worship since the time of Abraham; this was also the site of Solomon's Temple. Near by is the Wailing Place of the Jews, where they gather every Friday to lament the downfall of Jerusalem. This strong feeling of religious devotion to their country takes on a new significance from the rapid growth of the Zionist movement, looking to the restoration of Palestine to Israel. The tourist may visit the Church of the Sepulchre, the Via Dolorosa, Golgotha, the Citadel, or City of David,



There are few natural objects which have been photographed more times than Old Vesuvius.

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and the different monasteries and churches. But a walk about Jerusalem is even more interesting than the city itself. It will take one to the Garden of Gethsemane, to the Mount of Olives, the tombs of the prophets, of the kings, and of the judges, the Pool of Siloam and Job's Well, and also the Valley of Kidron, with the tombs of Absalom and Jehoshaphat. But six miles from Jerusalem, to the southwest, is the birthplace of Christ, the little town of Bethlehem, with its holy memories. Eighteen miles in a northeasterly direction is Jericho, and seven miles farther on is the Jordan. All these places can be visited during the steamer's stay at Jaffa, which has been extended to five days. One of the routes into Palestine from Jaffa is by way of Bethany, the home of Mary and Martha, and thence to Jerusalem by the road over the Mount of Olives. On this route the traveller passes Elisha's Fountain, the Valley of Achor, and the Tomb of Lazarus. The opportunity to make a pilgrimage to these many sacred places is one of the inspiring delights of this voyage to the Mediterranean. The Holy Land seems to most of us a celestial country, not to be seen by mortal eyes, but this cruise brings it from illusion to reality.

In all the journeyings in these far-away places one can give himself up wholly to the pleasure of sight-seeing and to alluring meditation on the mighty past, without so much as a thought of sailing schedules, customs officials, and the innumerable petty annoyances of independent travelling in the Orient. The Hamburg-American line has made the closest study of the comfort and the wishes of intelligent tourists, and in the light of the knowledge secured in ten years' experience every detail of the cruise has been worked out.

Leaving Jaffa, the homeward voyage is begun. The first stop is at Smyrna, renowned both in the ancient and the modern world. Thence the *Auguste Victoria* steams on through the Hellespont to Constantinople, with its mosques and its bazaars. The stay here has been so arranged as to include Friday, the Turks' Sunday, when the Sultan with his pompous bodyguard betakes himself to his magnificent mosque to worship, a stirring sight for the Occidental to witness. Then west again, across the old Ægean sea to Athens, and thence to Messina, Naples, Genoa, and home. In an article to be published in *McClure's Magazine* for December, these interesting cities will be described.



The harbor of Malta is one of the most attractive of any on the Mediterranean, and the city itself is full of ancient and modern interest.

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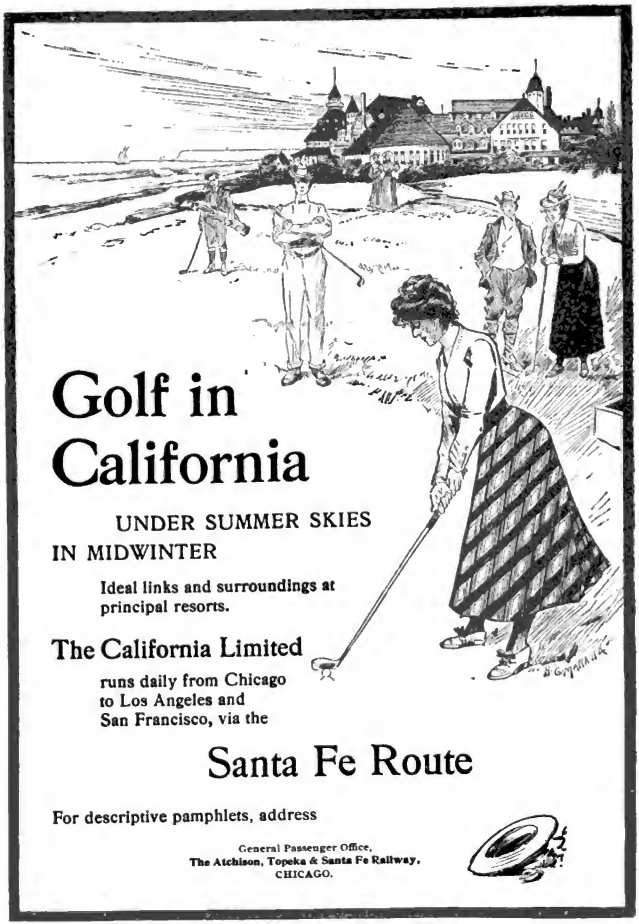
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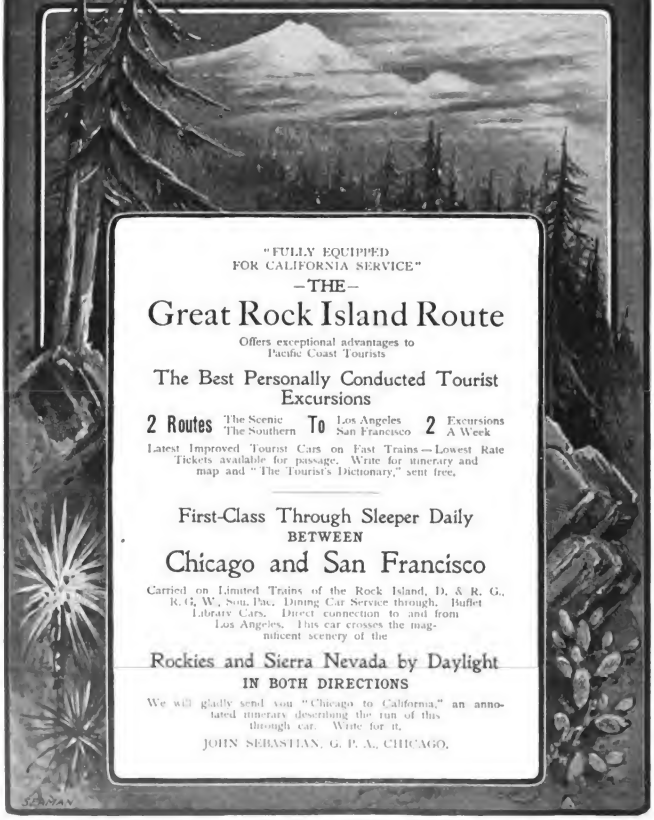
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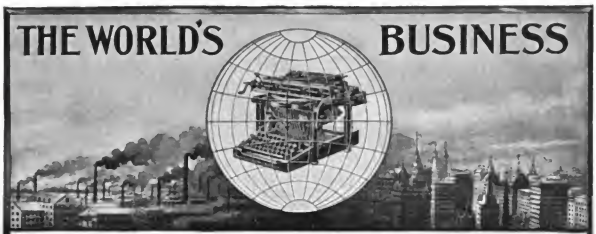
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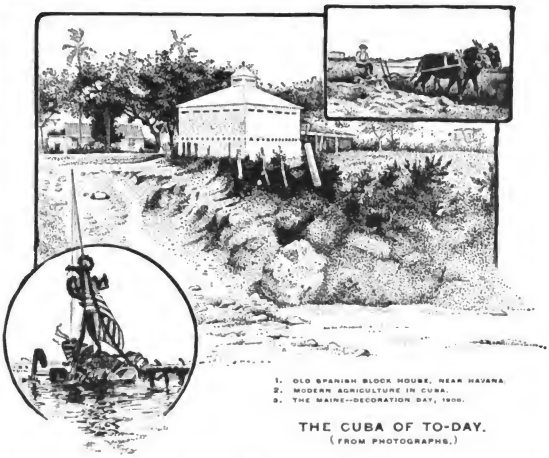
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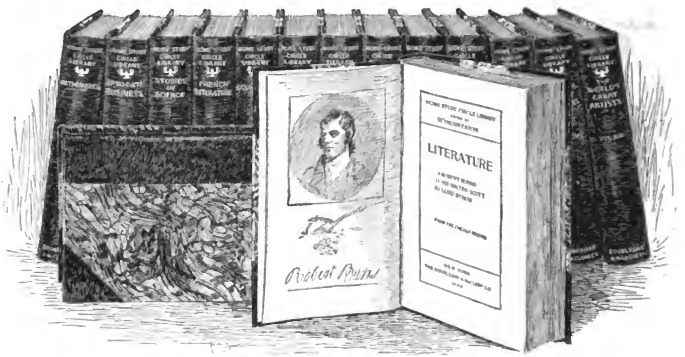
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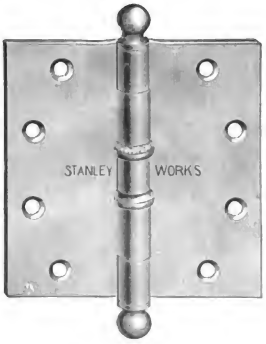
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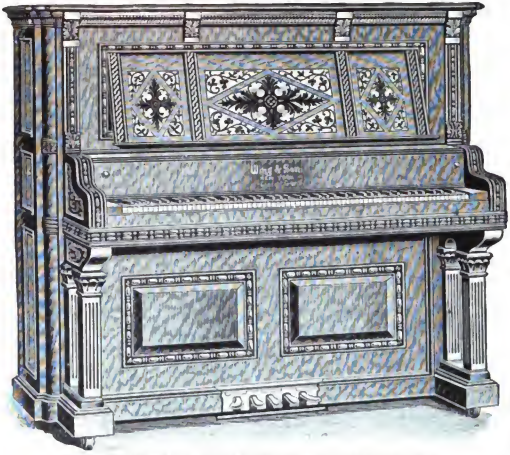
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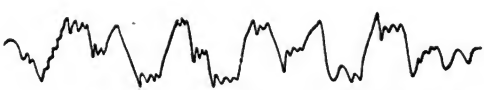
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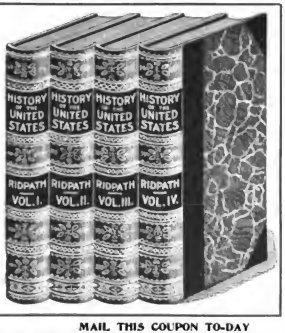
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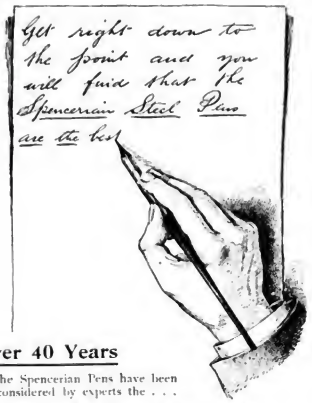
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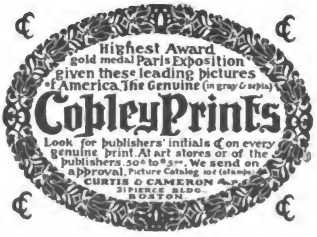
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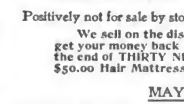
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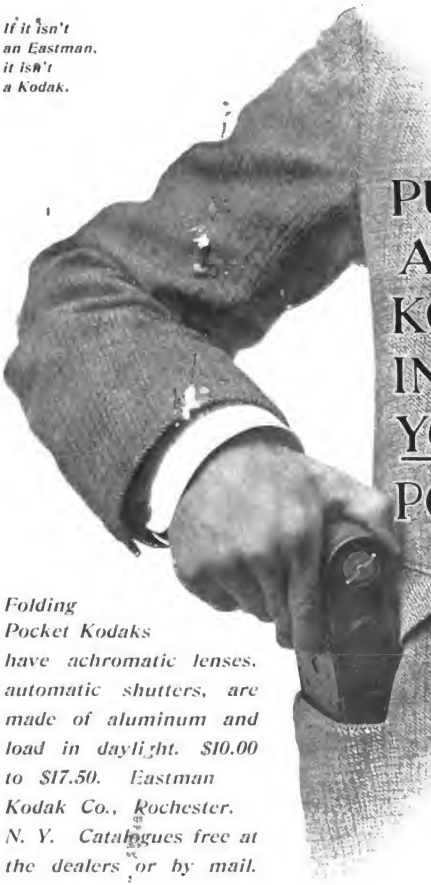
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